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Bolesław Cieślik

Principles of Constructing Microstructures in Etymological References

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Abbreviations

Adj.	Adjectives
Adv.	Adverbs
Alb.	Albanian
Arab.	Arabian
Arm.	Armenian, Ascan
Att.	Attic, Avestic
Bret.	Breton
BWOL⇔ERAWUL	Words borrowed from any other language that are etymologically related to another word in the Ukrainian language.
BWORL⇔ERAWUL	Words borrowed into the Old Russian language from any other language that are etymologically related to another word in the Ukrainian language.
BWUL⇔ERAWUL	Words borrowed into the Ukrainian language from any other language that are etymologically related to another word in the Ukrainian language.
CEDEL	A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (ed. E. Klein).
Co.	Cornish
Conj.	Conjunctions
Dan.	Danish
Dor.	Doric
Du.	Dutch
F.	French
fr.	from
G.	German
Gk.	Greek
Goth.	Gothic
Heb.	Hebrew
Hind.	Hindi
Hitt.	Hittite
HW	Hybrid words

HW⇔ERAN/BW	Hybrid words that are etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.
HW⇎ERAN/BW	Hybrid words that are not etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.
It.	Italian
L.	Latin
Lett.	Lettish
LG.	Low German
Lith.	Lithuanian
MDu.	Middle Dutch
ME.	Middle English
MHG.	Middle High German
MIr.	Middle Irish
Mishnaic Heb.	Mishnaic Hebrew
ML.	Medieval Latin
MLG.	Middle Low German
N.	Nouns
neut.	neuter
Num.	Numerals
NW	Native words
NW⇔ERAN/BW	Native words that are etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.
NW⇎ERAN/BW	Native words that are not etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.
OE.	Old English
OF.	Old French
OFris.	Old Frisian
OHG.	Old High German
OI.	Old Indian
OIr.	Old Irish
OL.	Old Latin
OLG.	Old Low German
ON.	Old Norse
OPruss.	Old Prussian
OS.	Old Saxon, Oscan
OSlav.	Old Slavic
Part.	Particles
PN	Pronouns
Pref.	Prefixes
Prep.	Prepositions
q.v.	quod vide
SHLF	Semito-Hamitic language family
Suf.	Suffixes, suffixoids
Swed.	Swedish
Toch.	Tocharian
Umbr.	Umbrian

W.	Welsh
WBELOL⇨ERAN/BW	Words borrowed into the English language from any other language that are etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.
WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW	Words borrowed into the English language from any other language that are not etymologically related to another native/borrowed word.

Introduction

The monograph is dedicated to studying principles involved in constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources of both English and Ukrainian languages. It analyzes the external structure, or mega- and macrostructures, and the internal structure, or microstructure, including *the expression plan* (left or register part) and *the content plan* (right or interpretative part) of dictionary entries in etymological sources. A methodological algorithm for their study and description has been developed, enabling the identification of lexicographic, cognitive-synergetic, and linguistic principles characteristic of such sources and substantiating the extent of adherence by compilers. It reveals common patterns and differences in constructing dictionary entries by the nature of the zone of headword and the zone of etymology.

Contemporary linguistics, referred to as the "era of semantics" (Yu. D. Apresyan, L. V. Shcherba), continues to seek answers to still contentious issues in linguistics, such as the correlation between *language and history* (W. von Humboldt, F. de Saussure), *language and culture* (V. M. Vereshchagin, I. R. Vykhovanets, J. Herder, A. A. Potebnya, V. M. Rusanivsky, E. Sapir, B. Whorf), *the representation of linguistic* (Yu. D. Apresyan, T. I. Vendina, Yu. M. Karaulov, O. S . Kubryakova) and *dialectal worldviews* (K. I. Demdova, N. A. Zakutkina, O. A. Radchenko), *lexicography of culture* (V. P. Berkov, O. I. Ivanyscheva, O. I. Petrushova), and *the understanding of cultural-historical information of linguistic units* (V. G. Gak, V. G. Kostomarov, V. N. Teliya) reflecting the development of all world languages.

In this perspective, the traditional view of language as an element resistant to formalization due to its complexity and numerous exceptions whose systemic role is as significant as the laws and rules of language have recently taken on a global dimension. This directs the modern cognitive-synergetic (neo-functional) vector primarily towards elucidating and subsequently codifying all aspects of human knowledge about language in general and its fragments in particular in dictionary forms (Yu. M. Karaulov, L. P. Stupin, F. J . Hausmann), characterized by structural clarity (V. V. Dubichinsky, H. Bergenholtz), the presentation of

various aspects of linguistic units (L. Zgusta), and, consequently, allowing each fragment to be used as an element of the epistemological system (V. P. Berkov).

Such problem setting accentuates the consideration of lexicography's status as a science with its theory, methodology, and tools within a qualitatively new level of studying the linguistic tradition. This tradition relies on both the works of lexicography classics (B. Yu. Gorodetsky, P. M. Denisov, Yu. M. Karaulov, L. P. Stupin, L. V. Shcherba) and is broadly defined as *an independent scientific activity*, as well as *pragmatists* (V. V. Dubichinsky, I. S. Kudashev, R. R. K. Hartmann, T. Piotrowski, H. E. Wiegand), who consider lexicography to be *an applied discipline and even deny its scientific status* (R. R. K. Hartmann, T. Piotrowski).

Contemporary lexicography is characterized by a tendency towards the activation of two fundamental directions of its study: *lexicographic theory* (A. S. Gerd, A. N. Baranov, L. V. Shcherba), or *metalexicography* (M. Banko, H. E. Wiegand, P. Zmigrodzki) and *lexicographic practice* (P. M. Denisov, V. A. Shirokov, L. V. Shcherba), or *dictionary-making* (L. Polyuga). Recently, scientific works have observed their integration, facilitating the exploration of new methodologies for analyzing lexicographic sources, already thoroughly researched in such aspects: <u>*the gnoseological*</u>, dictated by the essence of dictionaries as a means of organizing and representing knowledge accumulated by society (Yu. M. Karaulov, I. S. Kudashev, V. D. Tabanakova, I. Burkhanov, P. Sterkenburg); <u>*historical-philological*</u>, related to the study of dictionary typology in their interrelation with culturology (M. L. Apazhev, V. V. Dubichinsky, M. M. Morkovkin, V. F. Romenska, L. P. Stupin, L. V. Shchebra, Y. Malkiel); and <u>**semantic-gnoseological**</u>, related to the principles of generalizing dictionary information as a strategy of lexicographic modeling of the language content plan (V. V. Dubichinsky, P. M. Denisov, O. S. Kubryakova, L. Yu. Semein, D. Geeraerts).

Despite various approaches by scholars to interpreting the central concepts of traditional and modern lexicography, they all converge on considering the main object of study – the dictionary, on the one hand, *as a means of organizing and representing societal knowledge* (Yu. M. Karaulov, I. S. Kudashev, V. D. Tabanakova, I. Burkhanov, P. Sterkenburg), and on the other, *as one of the forms of preserving and systematizing information about the world, like a bank of shared knowledge among language users* (Yu. D. Apresyan, L. Boyarova, G. Vandries, V. V. Dubichinsky, V. V. Morkovkin), interpreting it as an instantaneous snapshot of language that is constantly renewed and moving (Yu. D. Apresyan), *a continuous cycle of acquired and lost words* (G. Vandries), *a way to describe the lexical system of language* (V. V. Dubichinsky, B. Yu. Gorodetsky, Yu. M. Karaulov, L. Zgusta). Based on the works of these and other scholars, lexicographic science traces somewhat new approaches to studying the dictionary: *the dictionary as a linguocultural phenomenon* (F. S. Batsevich) or *the dictionary as a metalinguistic text* (macro- and microtext of the dictionary) (M. Bakhtin) from

the perspective of *lexicographic discourse* (I. O. Golubovska), *the dictionary as a tool for manipulating public consciousness* (S. G. Kara-Murza) from the perspective of *cognitive lexicography* (Z. I. Komarova, O. S. Kubryakova), particularly *the application of conceptual analysis in lexicographic practice and dictionary material in cognitive studies* (V. L. Ivashchenko, Yu. S. Stupanov). A separate contentious issue is "man and dictionary": the dictionary in the personality and personality in the dictionary, formulated by Yu. M. Karaulov.

Contemporary lexicographic science benefits from, on the one hand, the availability of various types of lexicographic sources and, on the other hand, the emergence of modern editions that constitute *a system of dictionaries* (V. V. Dubichinsky), presented in a typological class-genus organization of lexicographic sources by *type → subtype → class → kind → variety*. Among these, **the etymological dictionary** deserves special attention, interpreted as a specialized linguistic reference system containing information about the genetic connections (etymology) of words in a specific language or group of related languages (O. S. Ostapova). Its specific purpose has led to diversity and meticulousness in its description, including *types of lexicographic information as components of an integral (unified) description of language* (Yu. D. Apresyan, O. S. Akhmanova, E. Benveniste, I. O. Boduen de Courtenay), *the problem of analyzing the etymon* (O. O. Potebnya, P. Ya. Chernykh, O. M. Trubachev, S. S. Vaulina), revealing *the motivation of the word's internal form* (S. S. Vaulina, O. O. Potebnya, V. V. Vinogradov), *the word-formation aspect of the etymon (morphological criterion)* (G. G. Varbot, Yu. V. Otkupshchikov), **stages of lexicographic compilation** (A. M. Babkin, A. P. Yevgenyeva, L. A. Novikov, N. Yu. Shvedova), and **principles of generalizing dictionary information as modeling the content plan of language** (V. V. Dubichinsky, P. M. Denisov, O. S. Kubryakova, L. Yu. Semein, D. Geeraerts). The last two issues in modern lexicographic studies are associated with terms such as *design*, or *the design stage (project) of the etymological dictionary* (I. S. Kudashev), which is one of the priorities, as it represents *the dictionary's concept*, or its *mega-* (I. S. Kudashev, H. Bergenholtz, S. Tarp) and *macrostructure* (S. V. Grinyov, R. R. K. Hartmann) from the standpoint of *status, type, purpose, scope, structure, principles of selecting described units,* and most importantly, *principles of their dictionary description*, as well as *the construction stage of the etymological dictionary* (Yu. D. Apresyan, I. S. Kudashev, Yu. M. Karaulov), which involves organizing the *microstructure* (V. V. Dubichinsky), or *dictionary entry* (V. I. Skibina), including *the zone of headword* and *the zone of etymology* (S. O. Vivyenko).

The results of previous research suggest that the most significant and still unresolved problem is related to establishing principles for constructing dictionary entries in English etymological sources, which can be identified by

conducting a deeper comprehensive analysis of the structure of dictionary entries by the nature of the zone of headword and the zone of etymology.

On the one hand, *the significance of the monograph* is determined by the general orientation of cognitive comparative studies toward exploring the interrelations between language and consciousness, language and history, and language and culture. These aspects reflect the worldview of representatives of different societies and their understanding of the world. On the other hand, it arises from the necessity to research the etymon's cognitive-onomasiological nature as an idealized proto-language system. By reconstructing it, linguistics will move closer to answering questions about the unequal verbalization of the world by speakers, related to the broader issue of processes and mechanisms for modeling the lexical-semantic systems of various languages in dictionary descriptions, which contain versions of the etymology of words and their reconstructed archetypes. Combining comparative-historical and comparative-typological approaches to analyzing the systemic-structural organization of linguistic material in etymological dictionaries of English and Ukrainian will aid in identifying those fundamental principles of the compilers of these sources, which influenced the analysis of the external and internal form of headwords, as well as the models according to which their etymological microstructures are constructed.

The monograph aims to identify the princliples of constructing microstructures in etymological references, with perspectives on modeling the structure of etymons.

The object of research is dictionary entries from etymological sources. *The research subject* is the princliples of constructing microstructures in etymological references

The empirical material of the monograph consists of 46,119 dictionary entries from the English language presented in "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" (E. Klein): hybrid words, native words, borrowed words from other languages. *The research materials* include "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" by E. Klein (volumes 1–2, 1966–1967).

The practical significance of the obtained results lies in their applicability in comparative-typological studies on issues of synchronic and diachronic lexicography, as well as in teaching academic disciplines such as "General Linguistics" (sections on "Synchrony and Diachrony", "The Problem of the Origin of Language", "Development and Functioning of Languages in Different Historical Epochs", "Lexicography"), "Comparative-Historical and Typological Linguistics" (sections on "Lexico-Semantic Systems of Languages in Comparative-Historical and Comparative-Typological Aspects"), "History of the English Language", "English Lexicology" (section on "Etymological Composi-

tion and Stylistic Layers of the English Language Lexicon"), "Linguoculturology" (section on "Language and Culture"). The analyzed empirical material can also be used in compiling a new volume of the "Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" and serve as a reliable theoretical-methodological basis for creating an English etymological dictionary of a new type.

Dr. Yan Kapranov

Chapter 1. Comparative Foundations in the Study of Design Principles of Etymological Sources and the Construction of their Microstructures in Contemporary Lexicography

1.1 Linguistic Tradition in the Study of Lexicographic Sources

The latest stage in the development of lexicography is characterized by a trend towards considering its primary object of study—*the dictionary*—as not only a form of preserving and systematizing information about the world but akin to a bank of shared knowledge among language speakers (Boyarova 2007, p. 30), but also as one of the essential means of describing the lexical system of a language (Dubichinsky 1998, p. 17). The dictionary remains not only a unique and irreplaceable guide about language but also the essential tool for scientific research, evidencing the current cognitive-synergetic (neo-functional) vector of illuminating all aspects of human knowledge about language in general and its fragments, specifically recorded in dictionary forms (Karaulov 1981, p. 84), which have their structure, allowing each fragment to be used as an element of the epistemological system (Berkov 1996, p. 4).

"A dictionary is a continuous cycle of acquired and lost words" (Vandries 1937, p. 52). Even the French lexicographer A. Rey once wrote that "modern civilization is a dictionary civilization" (Rey 1983, p. 261). From this perspective, the process of compiling any lexicographic sources remains one of the oldest types of philological activity, thus being one of the priority tasks facing philologists of all times and generations, as contemporary lexicography is the foundation on which science, literature, culture develop. In creating a dictionary, lexicographers must fully and objectively represent the lexical composition of the language at a particular stage of its historical development (Gnatyuk 2011, p. 95).

Despite the large volume of dictionary production and the generous promises of dictionary compilers regarding the ease of their use, practice shows that referring to lexicographic sources only sometimes helps many users solve their problems. Therefore, researching the principles on which the compilation of lexicographic sources is based has become timely. Another issue is determining the status of lexicography as a science and identifying prospective directions for its development.

1.1.1   Lexicography in Its Modern Challenges

The current stage of linguistics development is characterized by a trend towards studying lexicography, which is rapidly evolving and acquiring new features. This is because the dictionary, which humanity has been compiling for several millennia, represents a particular interest in this respect (Tabanakova 1981, p. 9; Burkhanov 1998, p. 7; Hartmann 2001, p. 64). *Lexicography*, as defined by V. V. Dubichinsky, is traditionally interpreted as "a branch of linguistics that studies the principles of compiling various types of dictionaries" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 8). However, the question of the status of lexicography as a science with its theory, methodology, and tools remains open.

Despite the millennia of experience in dictionary work, *lexicography* as a science is relatively young, and its conceptual system and terminology have yet to be entirely determined (Tabanakova 1981, p. 9; Burkhanov 1998, p. 7; Hartmann 2001, p. 64). The term "lexicography" has Greek origins (λεξικός – "relating to words, dictionary", and γράφω – "I write") (SLT 1976, p. 348), as confirmed by various scholars' definitions. V. V. Dubichinsky calls lexicography *"scientia lexicographica"* – "the science concerned with the creation, study, and use of dictionaries" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 8). Similarly, L. P. Stupin emphasizes that lexicography means "to write words" or "to compile dictionaries", implying a somewhat broader understanding of the term when talking about the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, including linguistic ones, as opposed to non-linguistic encyclopedic ones (Stupin 1985, p. 5).

The theoretical principles, laws, and postulates developed by many dictionary theorists and practitioners are present in the works of Yu. D. Apresyan (Apresyan 1995, 2006), V. G. Gak (Gak 1977, 1986), P. M. Denisov (Denisov 1976, 1993), V. V. Dubichinsky (Dubichinsky 1994, 2008), L. Zgusta (Zgusta 1971, 1980), Yu. M. Karaulov (Karaulov 1981), Y. Malkiel (Malkiel 1962, 1993), V. V. Morkovkin (Morkovkin 1970, 2003), A. Rey (Rey 1970), L. V. Shcherba (Shcherba 1958, 1974), and others, play an essential role in improving and elevating the level of lexicographic description of language units. It is worth noting that in contemporary lexicography, computer technologies are increasingly applied in dictionary compilation and the design of dictionary databases based on informational lexicographic models, including the works of A. N. Baranov (Baranov 2001), A. S. Gerd (Gerd 1986, 1996), Yu. M. Karaulov (Karaulov 1981), K. P. Sosnina (Sosnina 2000), V. A. Shirokov (Shirokov 1998, 2005).

Lexicography, as a scientific term, is not presented in all scientific reference sources. For example, the "Brockhaus and Efron Encyclopedic Dictionary" (ESBE 1896, vol. XVII) lacks an entry for "lexicography", though there is an entry for "lexicology". In the entry for "dictionary" in the same reference, the term "lexicography" is used synonymously with "dictionary technique" (Stupin 1985,

p. 5). It was not until 1916 that the "Encyclopedic Dictionary of the Granat Brothers" presented an entry for "lexicography", discussing "scientific methods of processing verbal material of a language for compiling a lexicon" (ESG, vol. 26). Similarly, according to L. P. Stupin, the first edition of the "Great Soviet Encyclopedia" (BSE 1938, Vol. 36) understood "lexicography" as "the work of compiling dictionaries". However, in its second (BSE 1953, Vol. 24) and third (BSE 1973, Vol. 14) editions, this term is interpreted much more broadly as "a branch of linguistics that deals with the practice and theory of compiling dictionaries". On the other hand, Stupin notes that neither the "Americana" encyclopedia nor the "Britannica" contains an entry for "lexicography", although both publications have entries for "dictionary". The absence of this term in such contemporary references as the British and American encyclopedias is not accidental. This is due, firstly, to the contentious nature of lexicography as a science and, secondly, to the ongoing debate among many linguists about whether lexicography is a science, precisely a part of the science of language, or simply a technique for compiling dictionaries, or at best, the art of their compilation (Stupin 1985, p. 5–6).

The Spanish lexicographer J. Casares, in his work "Introduction to Modern Lexicography", asserts that lexicography is "the technique and art of compiling dictionaries" (Casares 1958, p. 8). Meanwhile, L. P. Stupin argues that lexicography is not merely a technique, not just a practical activity of compiling dictionaries, and not even an art, but an independent scientific activity with its subject of study (dictionaries of various types), its own scientific and methodological principles, its theoretical issues, and its place among other language sciences (Stupin 1985, p. 6).

The first to express this thought in 1939 was the academician L. V. Shcherba in his report "An Attempt at a General Theory of Lexicography", presented at the meeting of the Department of Literature and Language of the USSR Academy of Sciences, and later expanded and published in the work "Language System and Speech Activity". L. V. Shcherba began his report with the thesis: "Although humanity has been compiling dictionaries for a very long time, it seems that a general lexicographical theory does not exist even today". Given this statement, the researcher outlined the scope of theoretical lexicography tasks, which include: 1) establishing a typology of dictionaries; 2) elucidating the nature of the word, its meaning, and use, its connections with other words of the same language, through which "the lexicon of each language at any given moment forms a system"; 3) constructing a dictionary entry from the perspectives of semantic, grammatical, and stylistic analysis of the word (Shcherba 1974, p. 265–304).

Following L. V. Shcherba, V. V. Vinogradov addressed the issue of lexicographic theory, clarifying the tasks of lexicography theory, among which are: "the problem of homonymy, the problem of phraseological combinations of words,

the problem of structural types and varieties of word meanings, the system of word formation in its internal connections, a clear understanding of the entire branched network of connections, as well as the relationship between grammatical forms and additional lexical meanings (…)". By defining the main tasks of lexicography theory in this way, V. V. Vinogradov anticipated lexicography's extension beyond the boundaries of lexicology (the problem of structural types and varieties of word meanings; the system of word formation in its internal connections; connections and relationships between grammatical forms). However, in practice, lexicography's departure from lexicology, particularly in Ukrainian linguistics, continues today (Vinogradov 1977, p. 264).

In Soviet linguistics, there were various views and opinions "for" and "against" lexicography's theoretical vs. practical nature—for instance, B. Yu. Gorodetsky once noted the complex nature of lexicography as a scientific discipline, which includes 1) *the gnoseological component*, determined by the essence of dictionaries as a means of organizing and presenting knowledge accumulated by society; 2) *the historical-philological component*, related to the study of the typology of dictionaries and their relationship with cultural studies; 3) *the semantic-gnoseological component*, concerning the principles of generalizing dictionary information in the aspect of lexicographic modeling of the content plan of language. It is worth noting that lexicography's defining feature remains its applied orientation (Gorodetsky 1983, p. 6).

The most vivid proponent of the view on theoretical lexicography remains P. M. Denisov, who unambiguously expresses "for" the theoretical nature and independence of lexicography. The researcher believes that theoretical lexicography generalizes all dictionary practice diachronically and has its subject, methods, and conceptual apparatus, which, firstly, makes it independent and secondly, determines it as a science: "The theory of lexicography is the theory of adequate interpretation, explicit description, and constructive presentation of the entire lexical composition of a language or its representative part" (Denisov 1988, p. 19).

Suppose P. M. Denisov's previous reflections lie in the theory of the dictionary. In that case, it logically follows that the scholar emphasizes defining lexicography's main object: "the theory of lexicography has its idealized abstract objects, which allow showing its logical boundaries and extra-linguistic limitations". The ideal abstract object in the theory of lexicography is the image of a universal dictionary, where the left part should become a theoretically conceivable universal register, and the right – a comprehensive, adequate universal interpretation of each unit of the register, as well as all the connections both among these units and these units with the cultural-historical background, which, according to P. M. Denisov, "unfolds in the universal format of a dictionary entry" (Denisov 1988, p. 19–20).

In foreign lexicography, the theoretical direction has only declared itself in the last 15–20 years. Of course, this is confirmed by analyzing such foreign lexicographic sources as "Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English" (ed. A. S. Hornby, 1963) (ALDCE 1963), "Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English" (1992) (LDCE 1992), "Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary" (1993) (MWCD 1993), "Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English" (1989) (OALDCE 1989), wherein all English-language dictionaries the term "lexicography" is defined as **a practical activity** (Stupin 1985, p. 7).

It is noteworthy that in 1989 "Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language" defines lexicography as the writing or compiling of dictionaries (WEUDEL 1989, p. 36), by 1998 in the "Dictionary of Lexicography" (ed. by R. R. K. Hartmann and G. James) (DL 1998), a distinction is made between theoretical lexicography, which includes the theory and history of dictionary compilation, and practical lexicography, which is directly related to the creation of dictionaries or primary lexicographical materials (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 10).

Two articles by R. R. K. Hartmann, "Lexicography as an Applied Linguistic Discipline" (Hartmann 1995, pp. 230–244) and "What is "Dictionary Research"" (Hartmann 1999, pp. 155–161), shed light on lexicographic activity from a scientific-research perspective. In the first article, the Dictionary Research is characterized as a multifaceted structure that includes *the Dictionary History, Dictionary Typology, Dictionary Criticism,* and *Dictionary Use* (Hartmann 1995, p. 238) (Figure 1.1.1.1):
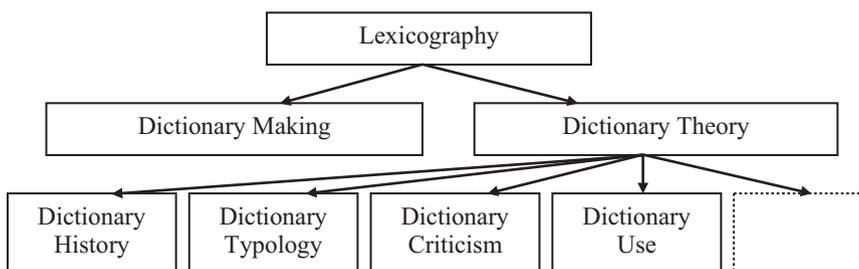
Figure 1.1.1.1 Theoretical Lexicography as Multiaspect Structure

H. E. Wiegand, defining the theoretical status of contemporary lexicography, refers to it as *metalexicography*, where the subject of general lexicography encompasses three types of lexicographic activity: 1) the dictionary plan; 2) the lexicographic file; and 3) the dictionary (Wiegand 1983, p. 14).

However, in Polish linguistics, there are fundamentally opposing views on *the status of lexicography*, as it is treated either as a craft unrelated to linguistics or as an independent science with its theory, leading to a lively debate. T. Piotrowski, representing the view of lexicography as a craft often distant or utterly detached

from linguistics, argues that lexicography is an independent, autonomous field, and the work of a lexicographer includes elements that cannot be described scientifically but rely solely on intuition, linguistic sense, and experience (Piotrowski 1994, p. 221). In his work, he reduces lexicography to "the technique of presenting information", following the lead of the theoretician of lexicography, L. Zgusta, who sees it as managing large volumes of information (Zgusta 1992/93, p. 130). T. Piotrowski dismisses the "scientific" nature of lexicography, reducing its tasks to 1) a specific technique of compiling and describing a small volume of information to facilitate quick access to it; 2) the compilation of lexicographic works or the compilation of philological and encyclopedic dictionaries; 3) the compilation of dictionaries and encyclopedias in general (Piotrowski 1994, p. 225). Additionally, he discusses *metalexicography*, where, opposing the independent scientific status of lexicography, T. Piotrowski attempts to explain why traditional linguistics considers lexicography a science, asserting that "it only meets certain criteria based on which it can be classified as a science, i. e., individual criteria of scientificity" (Ibid., p. 229).

Regarding the thesis about elements that lexicographers describe using only intuition, linguistic feeling, and experience, W. Miodunka strongly criticizes T. Piotrowski for "detaching lexicography from linguistics, forgetting that without a linguistic aspect, dictionaries compiled become collections of publishing proposals, collections of agreements difficult to evaluate", and continues: "lexicography, detached from linguistics, loses any theoretical and methodological basis" (Miodunka 1989, p. 74). Defending Piotrowski, M. Bańko, representing that lexicography is more of a craft than a science, believes W. Miodunka's criticism is too categorical and fails to consider the terminological-conceptual aspect. In other words, there is a confusion of terms and concepts. Accordingly, for T. Piotrowski, "lexicography is simultaneously the theory of dictionaries and the practice of compiling them" (Piotrowski 1994, p. 233), and for greater precision, as noted by M. Bańko, the scholar refers to the theory of lexicography as metalexicography, leaving the term lexicography only for lexicographic practice (Bańko 2001, p. 11). Supporting the craftsmanship of lexicography as discussed by T. Piotrowski, M. Bańko similarly posits that "lexicography is one of the oldest arts or crafts since dictionaries have been emerging since antiquity" (Ibid., p. 12).

The views of the German linguist H. E. Wiegand, who begins his presentation "On the Structure and Contents of a General Theory of Lexicography" at an international lexicographic conference in England in 1983 with quite "categorical statements" such as: "1) lexicography has never been, is not, and most likely will not become a science; 2) lexicography is not a branch of so-called applied linguistics; 3) lexicography is not a branch of lexicology" (Wiegand 1983, p. 13), are even more emphatic. R. R. K. Hartmann, supporting Wiegand's views, adds:

"lexicography is not a science, not an art, not a branch of linguistics, not applied linguistics; lexicography is a measurable, analyzed, controlled, managed, and verifiable practical process of presenting material aimed at compiling dictionaries to meet the needs of their users" (Hartmann 1999, p. 156). Even Ph. B. Gove, the chief editor of "Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language" (1961), in the programmatic article "The Achievements of Linguistics and Lexicography", states: "Lexicography is not yet a science. Perhaps it will never be a science. However, it is a complex and refined art that requires subjective analysis of arbitrary decisions and intuitive evidence" (WTNIDEL 1961, p. 18). Such categoricity from scholars (R. R. K. Hartmann, Ph. B. Gove, H. E. Wiegand) lies in the clear delineation of lexicography and metalexicography, where lexicographic theory constitutes the essence of metalexicography, and lexicography in the narrow sense is the object of study. As with T. Piotrowski, "metalexicography is the theory of lexicography, as opposed to the practice of lexicography" (Piotrowski 2001, p. 225).

The dichotomy of lexicography – metalexicography is further enriched by P. Żmigrodzki, who consistently considers lexicography as a discipline that includes: 1) the art of compiling philological dictionaries, as it encompasses methods and technical means of creating a description of the lexicographic composition (also specific problems of dictionary publication); 2) the general availability of dictionaries of a particular language or available in a specific territory; and metalexicography as 1) the theory and methodology of lexicographic description; 2) the typology of dictionaries and their typological characterization, study of language dictionaries (Żmigrodzki 2005, p. 16).

While Western lexicography unequivocally recognizes and supports the dichotomy of *lexicography – metalexicography* (Wiegand 1983, p. 15), Russian lexicography, without resorting to categoricity, speaks of the science of dictionary-making principles as theoretical lexicography and its application, accordingly, as practical lexicography. Meanwhile, Ukrainian linguistics tends to discuss the theory and practice of dictionary compilation without explicating the question of the reality/irreality of theoretical lexicographic science or metalexicography. This is evidenced by definitive descriptions of the term *lexicography* itself: 1) L. A. Bulakhovsky's definition – "lexicography is called the scientific work of compiling dictionaries" (Bulakhovsky 1959, p. 139); 2) L. S. Palamarchuk's definition – "lexicography as a separate branch of linguistic science, which deals with the theory and practice of creating dictionaries, is called upon, along with solving many complex problems of dictionary-making theory, to satisfy the practical need of society in lexicographic works of various types and purposes" (Palamarchuk 1978, p. 3); 3) the definition in the textbook "Modern Ukrainian Literary Language: Lexicon and Phraseology" – "lexicography is a science that deals not only with the development of theoretical problems of

dictionary compilation but also with the collection, ordering, and description of various kinds of lexicographic materials" (Zhovtobrukh 1973, p. 292); 4) O. Krovytska's definition – "lexicography is a branch of linguistics that defines theoretical principles of dictionary compilation, studies types of dictionaries; it is also the process of collecting words of a certain language, their arrangement, description of lexicographic material; it is also the sum of dictionaries of a certain language and scientific works in this field" (Krovytska 2005, p. 4).

We fully agree with L. P. Stupin that in the time of L. V. Shcherba, *lexicography* was finally defined as the practice of compiling dictionaries and a theoretical scientific discipline. This assertion became foundational in forming the starting positions of the lexicographic school (Stupin 1985, p. 7), as evidenced by the quote from V. V. Morkovkin: "It is enough to say that somewhere until the mid-1950s, the unfinished work "Experience in the General Theory of Lexicography" by L. V. Shcherba remained the only attempt to rise above the level of analytical commentary on already accepted specific lexicographic decisions and to view lexicography as a separate scientific discipline" (Morkovkin 2003, p. 406).

Summarizing the above, we note: 1) if in 1983 H. E. Wiegand with his categorical statements emphasized that lexicography had not yet become an academic discipline (Wiegand 1983, p. 13), by 2008 V. V. Dubichinsky wrote that "the creative scientific-analytical nature of lexicography obliges us today to perceive it not only as an art, the "science" of beauty, but also as a separate full-fledged scientific discipline, which, first of all, needs to be considered together with linguistics" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 11); 2) modern lexicography is a science as an activity that constitutes "a search for understanding (explanation of certain aspects of reality) by formulating general laws or principles that can be experimentally verified" (Goldstein 1984, p. 33); 3) the term lexicography today has three meanings: 1) a science, a branch of linguistics, which studies the principles of compiling dictionaries of various types; 2) the practice of lexicography (compiling dictionaries); 3) the totality of dictionaries of a particular language (SSRYA 1957, Vol. VI) (typology of dictionaries). At the same time, it is observed that the main object of modern lexicography is the dictionary as a way of organizing and presenting society's knowledge, which has many definitions and interpretations.

1.1.2   The Modern Dictionary as a Means of Organizing and Representing Societal Knowledge

At the current stage of development in both theoretical and practical lexicography, there is a trend towards defining the concept of "dictionary", which remains one of the priorities. In today's lexicographic science, there still is not a

universally accepted and comprehensive interpretation of the concept of "dictionary" (Tabanakova 2001, p. 132; Burkhanov 1998, p. 65), as the "explosive development of practical lexicography in the 20th century, especially in its second half, contributed to the fact that the original content of the concept of "dictionary" has significantly expanded, and the definition of a dictionary as a work that deals with the meanings of words began to blur" (Karaulov 1981, p. 42). Significant changes have occurred in the purpose, content, and ways dictionaries exist. This was due to the emergence of machine information carriers at the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st century (Kudashev 2007, p. 16): mobile phones, computers, laptops, electronic books, and tablets. Such circumstances prompt the convergence of different types of reference publications, resulting in the gradual transformation of modern lexicography into a science of reference publications (reference science) (Hartmann 2001, p. 5); hence, in computer dictionaries, the relevance of such a traditional feature of the dictionary as "the orderliness of the dictionary" is virtually nullified (Leichik 1999, p. 8). Lexicographers have already begun to be interested in objects previously unrelated to the dictionary: indexers, classifiers, tariff-information directories, etc. (Gerd 1981, p. 109; Gerd 1997, p. 198).

However, as I. S. Kudashev emphasizes, changes have also occurred in paper dictionaries (Kudashev 2007, p. 16), as to the traditional unit of lexicography – the word – other objects have been added: "phrases, idiomatic expressions, morphemes, etc." (Gorodetsky 1973, p. 29), and even "(…) diagrams, drawings, tables on the word-dominant" (Gerd 1997, p. 200). As a result, new principles of organizing headwords appeared in paper dictionaries – reverse alphabetical, frequency, and specific types of ideographic order (Kudashev 2007, p. 16). Changes have also occurred, like reader queries to dictionaries, as today, readers expect dictionaries to answer a wide range of questions, resulting in a significant portion of encyclopedic information in dictionaries (Gak 1987; Kiselevsky 1977; Safonkina 1983).

I. S. Kudashev confirms this reasoning: "The content of dictionaries has changed so much that many lexicographers are ready to recognize as a dictionary any reference publication that has a dictionary structure (for example, a telephone directory)" (Kudashev 2007, p. 17). Additionally, A. M. Al-Kasimi adds, "the distinctive feature of a dictionary is now not its content, but its form; important is not the type of information the publication presents, but the order of organization of this information, which provides users easy access to it" (Al-Kasimi 1992, p. 574). Meanwhile, A. S. Gerd convinces that different types of informational reference books, built on alphabetical, ideographic, or mixed principles, should be classified as dictionaries (Gerd 1997, p. 196).

The interpretation of the concept "dictionary" in contemporary (mainly English-language) explanatory dictionaries and even universal encyclopedias

almost does not differ from the similar definition in "Webster's American Dictionary of the English Language" (1828): "a book containing the words of a language arranged in alphabetical order, with explanations of their meanings" (WADEL 1828).

Agreeing with I. S. Kudashev, many researchers consciously avoid the problem of defining the concept of a "dictionary" (Kudashev 2007, p. 19). For example, L. Zgusta and I. S. Landau argue that if the work focuses on describing traditional types of dictionary publications, it is natural that authors might not want to deal with the problems of the status of more rare and even marginal forms of dictionaries (Landau 2001, p. 5–6; Zgusta 1971, p. 197). Some researchers see no point in clarifying the content of the concept "dictionary" and distinguishing it from other types of reference publications, believing that the boundaries between reference publications will disappear under the pressure of computer technologies (Hartmann 2001, p. 5), while others fear that in the conditions of the active transformation of the concept "dictionary", its "technical" definitions could harm the development of the entire field or individual types of dictionary publications (Geeraerts 1989, p. 295). P. Sterkenburg considers defining the "dictionary" concept an unattainable task (Sterkenburg 2003, p. 3).

Despite various approaches by scholars to interpreting the concept of a "dictionary", the most optimal definition seems to be that of M. M. Morkovkin, who understands *a dictionary*, firstly, a list of linguistic units (words, phrases, morphemes) arranged according to a particular system (primarily alphabetically) that are subject to lexicographic interpretation, and, secondly, the entirety of all language headwords (Morkovkin 1986, p. 107). The discussion regarding a universal and generally accepted definition of the concept "dictionary" is driven by reasons such as 1) expansion of the scope and content of the concept "dictionary"; 2) emergence of new types of reference publications of the dictionary type; 3) arising contradictions between everyday stereotypes and scientific conceptions of dictionaries; 4) differences in lexicographic traditions; 5) loose use of terminology; 6) the tendency to oppose specific types of dictionaries to the "regular dictionary"; 7) peripheral interest of lexicographers in tackling the problem of defining the concept "dictionary". The significance of any dictionary is constituted by criteria, models, and principles of their compilation, which have already established themselves in lexicography.

1.1.3 Principles of Generalizing Dictionary Information as a Strategy of Lexicographic Modeling of Language Content

The current era of linguistics development is characterized by Yu. D. Apresyan as the "era of semantics", as human language performs three main functions: communication, encoding, and decoding of information (Apresyan 1995, p. 3). This was also sensed by L. V. Shcherba while developing the theory of lexicography, as he was convinced that "dictionary work is based exclusively on semantics. Thus, it requires an excellent perception of language and a talent that is likely akin to the writer's gift" (Shcherba 1958, p. 76). These words found confirmation in the thoughts of Professor Ivan Kovalyk from Vasyl Stefanyk Precarpathian National University: "To be a good lexicographer, one needs to be everything at once: an etymologist, a lexicologist, a phraseologist, and a historian of the language, – know the history of the people, culture, economics, various fields of knowledge (…). A lexicographer must or is obliged to have a linguistic feeling and know where and what to read to make the dictionary as perfect as possible" (Polyuga 2000, p. 141).

The stages of work on compiling a dictionary can be found in the works of Yu. D. Apresyan (Apresyan 1988), V. P. Berkov (Berkov 1971, 1977), V. V. Vinogradov (Vinogradov 1977), V. G. Gak (Gak 1977, 1986), O. S. Gerd (Gerd 1986), S. I. Golovashchuk (Golovashchuk 1976), S. V. Grinev (Grinev 1986, 1988), P. M. Denisov (Denisov 1977, 1978), V. V. Dubichinsky (Dubichinsky 1994), L. Zgusta (Zgusta 1971), Yu. M. Karaulov (Karaulov 1981), V. M. Krupnov (Krupnov 1987), S. Landau (Landau 2001), V. M. Leichik (Leichik 1988), Y. Malkiel (Malkiel 1962), Yu. M. Marchuk (Marchuk 1979), V. V. Morkovkin (Morkovkin 1994), A. A. Moskalenko (Moskalenko 1961), S. I. Ozhegov (Ozhegov 1974), L. S. Palamarchuk (Palamarchuk 1978), A. Rey (Rey 1970), V. D. Tabanakova (Tabanakova 1981), O. O. Taranenko (Taranenko 1995), F. Hausmann (Hausmann 1991), L. V. Shcherba (Shcherba 1974), and others. However, a comprehensive study of the system of a lexicographer's work on the creation/compilation of a dictionary remains open, primarily the investigation of the principles that guide the author/compiler of the dictionary or the team of compilers when constructing the dictionary entry. These preliminary observations indicate the problem's relevance, which we will try to reveal in this section.

Through the review of the theoretical works of scholars who investigated the principles of generalizing dictionary information as a strategy of lexicographic modeling of the content plan of any language type, it was found that this problem remains controversial and requires in-depth study from the position of maintaining a "golden mean" between the requirements of theory and practice. To confirm this idea, we will cite the reasoning of P. M. Denisov: "While giving due to the current fascinations, on the one hand, with macrostructures, macro-ap-

proaches, global cybernetic schemes of humanity's electronic future, and on the other, with microstructures, microanalysis, elementary standard and universal units of meaning, "molecular" levels of sign systems, lexicography, like philology, by its essence, is oriented towards "human proportions", i. e., units of "medium size"" (Denisov 1978, p. 29).

It should be noted that all its universal lexicographic functions must be implemented in the "ideal" model of a dictionary. The primary function is undoubtedly *informational*. Hence, linguistic tradition defines the informational content and structure of the dictionary, considering it as a reference in case of difficulties related to language use. It is believed that dictionaries also perform a *communicative function*, helping language community members communicate with each other. *The registering function* plays a unique role since dictionaries, in a generalized form, preserve information about the language at a certain period. Additionally, since information in a dictionary is subject to organization and systematization, it is possible to talk about *the function of systematization* (Kudashev 2007, p. 43), reflecting systemic language connections in the dictionary (Denisov 1993, p. 237).

For a long time, linguistics focused only on the already-mentioned functions. However, in normative dictionaries, *codification* comes to the forefront, as normative dictionaries serve as sources of information and arbitrators in language disputes. Any dictionary, even if conceived as descriptive, is somehow normative: a lexicographer, like a textbook author, speaks not just "in his name" but acts as an intermediary between society – the collective bearer of the language – and the individual, who, by consulting the dictionary, as if poses a question to the lexicographer (Kudashev 2007, p. 44).

Some researchers (V. V. Dubichinsky, I. S. Kudashev) talk about the cognitive or gnoseological function (Kudashev 2007, p. 44), which is somewhat determined by the following function, which is *educational*. First, it dates back to ancient times, for the goal of each of the ancient linguistic schools was the compilation of dictionaries. There is a belief that "a particular dictionary is developed to teach or learn" (Dubichinsky 1995, p. 67). However, remaining a reference tool, a dictionary always plays a supportive role during learning. N. Yu. Shvedova's relevant statements are: "It is impossible to learn a language properly using a dictionary alone" (Shvedova 2005, p. 423).

Relying on the functions of a dictionary mentioned above, researchers raise the issue of their construction principles. At the current stage of linguistics development, **the principles of lexicography** are interpreted as features/methods laid at the foundation of creating a dictionary of the philological type (Soviet Ukrainian Dictionary 1976, vol. 7, p. 693). O. S. Kubryakova refers to these features/methods as "principal guidelines" – a particular foundation of initial theoretical and methodological knowledge that generates a "disciplinary matrix"

(term by T. Kuhn) for ideas and concepts in modern linguistics (cited from Khomutova 2009, p. 146).

To date, a particular tradition has formed regarding the principles of compiling dictionaries of English and American writers (Karpova, 1978), dictionaries of language correctness (Postnikova, 1972), dictionaries of English synonyms (Apresyan, 1979; Horodnyi, 1981; Melnik, 1964), frequency dictionaries (Alekseev, 1975), phraseological dictionaries (Kunin, 1964). This tradition allows commenting on fundamental principles in creating/compiling any dictionary.

The first principle in compiling a dictionary is **the inheritance (sequence) of lexicographical works**, emphasized by V. V. Dubichinsky: "Any dictionaries, when describing certain lexicographical material, always rely on lexicographical traditions" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 50). The main issue in creating/compiling any dictionary is the order of material arrangement, which corresponds to this tradition, namely: 1) *alphabetical* – by the alphabet; 2) *nest* – grouping in one "nest" (within a single dictionary entry) words that have a common root (subtype – alphabetical-nest); 3) *ideographic* – words grouped and arranged by ordinary meaning, or theme; 4) *inverse* – word presented alphabetically from the end; 5) *frequency* – word presented by decreasing frequency: from the most used to the least (Apazhev 2005, p. 32–33; Dubichinsky 2008, p. 69–71; Morkovkin 1994, p. 13–23; Romenetskaya 1978, p. 181–188; Stupin 1985, p. 12–18; Shcherba 1974, p. 265–304). However, even relying on existing lexicographical sources, lexicographers face problems that tradition does not answer (Berkov 1971, p. 5; Sorokoletov 1985, p. 5; Tatarinov 1996, p. 143–144), which causes a certain subjectivism in creating/compiling dictionaries (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 50). P. M. Denisov asserts, "It is probably impossible to completely exclude the individual-stylistic factor from lexicography—the talent of outstanding lexicographers like V. I. Dal, P. Larousse, P.-M.-E. Littré, S. I. Ozhegov, N. Webster, L. V. Shcherba, etc., was manifested primarily in the fact that the dictionaries they created became a reflection of their personal creativity, innovation, and unique individual style" (Denisov 1976, p. 248).

One of the subjective factors in the process of representing meanings in a dictionary entry remains polysemous lexemes. Only a lexicographer can decide which method of description is correct: 1) *historical*, where the arrangement of meanings is based on the etymological analysis of the development of meanings, with the modern and most used meanings being last in the semantic structure, or 2) *empirical*, based on the contemporary understanding of the actuality of a particular word meaning (as every linguist and even an ordinary language speaker has their view) (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 51). It has been established that "**subjectivity** is inevitable in choosing strategies to overcome the internal contradictions of a dictionary", known as "lexicography antinomies" mentioned in

the works of such scholars as V. D. Devkin (Devkin 2000), V. V. Dubichinsky (Dubichinsky 1995), A. Rey and S. Delesalle (Rey, Delesalle 1983), N. Yu. Shvedova (Shvedova 2005) (cited from: Kudashev 2007, p. 68). Let us consider the most common antinomies.

Common to all dictionaries are contradictions between the role of the dictionary as a key to authentic texts, i.e., the diversity and uniqueness of language, and the inevitable limitation of their set of these keys, which contain generalized decisions (Kudashev 2007, p. 68). This comprehensive approach is based on the application in lexicography of Saussure's binary oppositions (synchrony-diachrony, langue-parole). For example, a translation dictionary's compiler must draw a clear line between contextual and dictionary equivalents and free and fixed expressions (Rey, Delesalle 1983, p. 273). This antinomy's consequence contradicts the dictionary's orientation toward working with new texts and its simultaneous diachronic nature (Kudashev 2007, p. 69). Thus, any dictionary is a diachronic work (Apresyan 1993, p. 8; Zgusta 1971, p. 202–203). In this context, V. P. Berkov notes that 1) work on a dictionary and its publication takes time; 2) a lexicographer can only include neologisms if convinced of their viability (Berkov 1996, p. 25).

The next antinomy involves *contradictions between a dictionary's pursuit of systematicity and its inevitable partial lack of system* (Kudashev 2007, p. 69). On this matter, V. V. Dubichinsky asserts that, by structuring lexical material according to one parameter, a lexicographer simultaneously creates non-systematic aspects concerning other parameters (Dubichinsky 1995, p. 69). It is thought that the art of lexicography lies in finding compromises when addressing this issue, as this process is difficult to formalize, and lexicography will likely never be free from subjective factors (Berkov 1996, pp. 5, 22–24; Dubichinsky 1998, pp. 29–30; Shcherba 1955, p. 7).

An important principle is the adherence to **pragmatism** (works by V. D. Devkin (Devkin 2000, p. 21), P. M. Denisov (Denisov 1977, p. 216), V. V. Dubichinsky (Dubichinsky 1998, p. 30), D. Geeraerts (Geeraerts 1989, p. 291)). According to V. V. Dubichinsky, "Any dictionary is oriented towards a specific reader, takes into account the peculiarities of languages, the necessity of lexicographical work outcomes for a certain period, and sometimes is created from purely utilitarian considerations" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 52). Lexicographer S. Johnson spoke about the utility of a dictionary and precisely what a dictionary can teach a student (cited in Dubichinsky 2008, p. 51). For example, in translation lexicography, V. P. Berkov defines the main task of such a dictionary as being a practical guide for those engaged in translation (Berkov 1971, pp. 16–17).

The principle of normativity in the selection and presentation of lexicon addresses one of the dictionary's most important tasks – the normative-stylistic one. "It is not possible to allow unrestricted access to those means of language

that are outside the norm, even if these means are widely used in real communication processes; in this case, the lexicographer must remember that the dictionary is closely connected with the literary norm and fixation of language at each epoch" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 51). However, referring to F. de Saussure, E. Coseriu, and their followers, V. V. Dubichinsky emphasizes that the norm occupies an intermediate position between the living element of language and its fixed systematic laws, compelling lexicographers to include stylistically marked means in dictionaries, marking them with unique signs (Ibid., p. 52). L. V. Shcherba said: "Some researchers think that a normative dictionary cannot be scientific and are ready to oppose the normative dictionary to the descriptive one. This is a misunderstanding: a good normative dictionary does not invent the norm but describes the one in the language. Sometimes it is hard to notice the norm, but this is already the incompetence of the researcher, which has nothing to do with the principal side of the matter" (Shcherba 1974, p. 276). S. I. Ozhegov has his view on this: "A linguist is not only aware of the paths of language development, he is a bearer of the language of the collective, not only registering and explaining language facts but as a perceptive participant of the language collective becomes a legislator of norms" (Ozhegov 1974, p. 164). "A normative dictionary, aiming to show current (active) norms of word usage, also needs to reflect the diversity of the lexical system. Essentially, there are no normative dictionaries in the classic sense, and this situation reflects the dialectical nature of the linguistic norm: its stability and variability" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 52).

Separately, it is worth addressing *the principled approach to balancing lexicographic works' theoretical (latest information) and practical planes.* A dictionary is always created considering new needs, a new recipient, and current linguistic views, and the lexicographic work itself is always new, i. e., the contemporaneity of a dictionary work is somewhat anachronistic (Dubichinsky 1998, p. 17). For instance, V. A. Shirokov, in the monograph "Elements of Lexicography", emphasizes that "lexicographic processes as a type of intellectual activity and the phenomenology of dictionaries, which are the products of this activity, are not constant over time – they evolve according to the internal development of linguistic science and practical needs" (Shirokov 2001, pp. 31–44).

In the latest research on this issue, particularly in D. M. Aref's thesis "Principles of Compiling a Russian-Arabic Dictionary of Linguistic Terms for Iraqi Philologists and Russists", the author identifies four basic principles for compiling dictionaries: 1) the principle of dictionary minimization; 2) the principle of considering the comparative characteristics of the phonetic composition; 3) the principle of differentiating possible relationships between terminological systems; 4) the principle of optimality of linguistic expression (Aref 2007, p. 44). In L. Yu. Semeyn's work "Principles of Constructing Educational Explanatory Dictionaries of the Native Language", *the principle of graduality*,

i. e., gradual complication in the presentation of lexicographic material through the introduction of various remarks (only in the Oxford series dictionaries), derived words, phraseological units, notes on word usage, is taken as the basis for compiling a series of educational explanatory dictionaries (Semeyn 1990). Another noteworthy study is "Fundamentals of Constructing Educational Companion Type Dictionaries: Based on the "Schoolchildren's Explanatory Dictionary"" by I. L. Starikova, where *the principle of anthropocentrism* was established, manifesting in the integral (multi-aspect) description of the headword, or registry word, considering the tasks of the dictionary, implemented in the "encyclopedization" of linguistic description, addressed to the user – the modern schoolchild (Starikova 2008).

An exciting opinion by V. K. Shcherbin suggests that "to ensure the successful organization of the dictionary space, a whole set of conditions needs to be observed: 1) a successful choice of the main principle of material presentation (alphabetical, nest, thematic), i. e., the macrostructure of the dictionary; 2) convenient grouping of various types of information within a dictionary entry, i. e., an adequate description of the linguistic material of the microstructure of the dictionary; 3) motivated use of the available possibilities of modern lexicographic technique (illustrations with images of realities, exhaustive bibliographic lists for dictionary articles, sophisticated transcription systems, a refined reference apparatus with a multitude of different types of references); 4) a high level of publishing preparation of the dictionary and its typographic execution" (Shcherbin 2007, p. 93).

Undoubtedly, the principles that P. M. Denisov once identified can also be considered foundational in compiling/creating a dictionary of any type: 1) the principle of relativity and orientation to the addressee; 2) the principle of standardness; 3) the principle of economy; 4) the principle of simplicity; 5) the principle of completeness; 6) the principle of effectiveness; 7) the principle of semantic gradation in the description of information (Denisov 1993, p. 207).

Synthesizing different positions and scientific results of scholars, it is worth highlighting four compositional levels of the dictionary, in which the principles mentioned above are systematized: 1) *megastructure* of the dictionary: introduction/preface, the dictionary itself, and appendices (Kudashov 2007, p. 63); 2) *macrostructure* of the dictionary – the overall structure, character, and nature of its lexical units (Grinyov 1986b, p. 16–17); 3) *microstructure* – the construction of a dictionary entry and the way it is filled (Grinyov 1986b, p. 16–17); 4) *mediostructure* – the systemic connections between different parts of the dictionary (Grinyov 1986b, p. 16–17).

These above-mentioned compositional levels define three stages of dictionary creation/compilation, for each of which relevant principles will be pertinent: 1) selection of headwords; 2) search of data; 3) writing of entries (Jackson 2002,

p. 27). The compiler's decisions at the third stage form its microstructure and internal design (DL 1998). All lexicographers agree that the types of informational categories represented in the microstructure can vary depending on the dictionary type and its composition (Karpova 1994, 2000; Stupin 1985; Béjoint 2000; DL 1998; Jackson 2002).

The following conclusions can be drawn. In modern lexicographic studies, there is a significant number of lexicography principles, or "principal guidelines" for a dictionary of any type, that help compilers to implement all its universal functions: informational, communicative, registering, systematizing, codifying, cognitive/epistemological, and educational. The work of a lexicographer is based on an already established lexicographic tradition, characterized by five foundational principles: lineage of lexicographic works, subjectivism, pragmatism, the principle of normativity in the selection and presentation of lexicon, and the principle of a theoretical (latest information) and practical plane of lexicographic works. Some lexicographers adhere to the principles of relativity and orientation to the addressee, standardness, economy, simplicity, completeness, effectiveness, and semantic gradation of information description. All mentioned principles help to fully represent both the external structure of the dictionary, or its mega- and macrostructures, as well as the internal structure of the dictionary, or its micro- and mediostructures, which constitute another problem in its multi-aspect orientation to the phased nature in the design of philological type dictionaries and the construction of their dictionary entries.

1.2　Stages in Designing Philological Type Lexicographic Sources and Constructing Their Dictionary Entries

As demonstrated by the theory and practice of lexicography in both the past and present, one of the main challenges in lexicography is its terminological apparatus, especially such related terms as *construction*, *modelling*, *parameterization*, *design*, *structure*, *compilation/arrangement*, and *formation of dictionaries* of any type. The content of these terms is related to the stages of work by the author/compiler (team of authors/compilers) on the dictionary, as its development presupposes a phased character (Baranov 2001; Grinyov 1986; Dubichinsky 1998; Zgusta 1971). There is a trend towards varying the number of stages in dictionary creation/compilation: according to S. V. Grinyov, there should be four stages (Grinyov 1986, pp. 11–13), while B. Yu. Gorodetsky identifies ten stages (Gorodetsky 1983, p. 11). Exploring the different levels of detail of these stages helps to explain such divergence in views.

To date, no "effective" methodology has been developed for working on creating/compiling a dictionary, as "some find it more convenient to first form a corpus of texts and then work on forming the dictionary, while others prefer to combine these two stages" (Andryushchenko, Morkovkin 1988, p. 6), confirmed by I. S. Kudashev's stance: "when designing a computer dictionary, software testing is mandatory, while in the creation of a paper dictionary, designing the original layout is essential". The main reasons for the discrepancy among scholars regarding the stages of dictionary compilation are 1) dependence on initial conditions; 2) optionality, i.e., the non-mandatory nature of certain stages; 3) overlapping, simultaneity, continuity of the stages of work on the dictionary; 4) differences in views regarding the moment of completion of work on the dictionary. The researcher emphasizes that it is impossible to develop and formalize a linear sequence of detailed and universal sets of stages for designing/constructing a dictionary (Kudashev 2007, pp. 48–50).

Answering this question is challenging, given that the concept of the "ideal dictionary" cannot be realized in practice (Kudashev 2007, pp. 48–50). The information organization in a dictionary can have a complex and diverse structure, as there is no single typology and terminology in this area to date. Many researchers focus on the "ideal" model of a dictionary, the essential compositional components of mega-, macro-, micro-, and mediostructures. Regardless of the lexicographical tradition and dictionary type, its structure always consists of two main parts – *macro-* and *microstructures*, which are used in different meanings and have several significant drawbacks (Kudashev 2007, p. 63). However, differences between these terms still exist, which we will attempt to clarify.

According to R. R. K. Hartmann, **macrostructure** is "the principle of organization of dictionary entries in the main body of the dictionary" (Hartmann 2001, p. 65). In this concept, S. V. Grinyov also includes the composition and interaction of all compositional parts of the dictionary, for which R. R. K. Hartmann uses the term ***"megastructure"***, and H. Bergenholtz and S. Tarp use "frame structure". It has been established that the actual organization of dictionary entries in the corpus is termed ***"mediostructure"*** (Grinyov 1995, pp. 30, 32) – "various means of access to entries" (Hartmann 2001, p. 65). In the "Manual of Specialised Lexicography" (H. Bergenholtz, S. Tarp, 1995), a somewhat different term for "mediostructure" is "cross-reference structure" (Bergenholtz, Tarp 1995, p. 16).

Macrostructure is formed by the general principles of the lexicographic work, synonymic, antonymic, homonymic, paronymic, hyper-hyponymic relationships of dictionary units, external connections of semantic fields, thematic and lexico-semantic groups, criteria for the arrangement of language units in the dictionary (Dubichinsky 2008, pp. 60–61). It is considered appropriate for the formation of the dictionary's macrostructure to undertake *the design (project)*

stage of the dictionary (Kudashev 2007, pp. 49–50), which is one of the priority stages, as it forms *the concept of the dictionary* or its *megastructure.* According to O. Demskaya, this is "a system of views on the status, type, purpose, volume, structure, principles of selection of units to be described, and most importantly, principles of their dictionary description". In this context, the lexicographic concept, despite its typical nature, has an individual character, i. e., each specific dictionary description is based on its foundations, principles, and solutions (Demskaya 2010, pp. 28–29).

Based on the works of V. V. Dubichinsky, let us highlight the main stages of designing the mega- and macrostructure of a philological-type dictionary: 1) forming the authoring team; 2) creating a dictionary project; 3) creating a dictionary card index (or a computer database); 4) forming the word register, systematizing lexical material according to the methodology adopted by the authoring team; 5) developing the author's concept of the dictionary entry structure; 6) direct lexicographical (automated, computer) interpretation of the selected linguistic units – the main stage of creating the dictionary; 7) preparing the dictionary for publication (Dubichinsky 1998, pp. 90–101).

L. P. Stupin identifies five main sections of *the mega- and macrostructure of dictionaries:* 1) an introduction or foreword; 2) a section on "How to Use the Dictionary"; 3) a key to the transcription system used in the dictionary; 4) a list of abbreviations and their explanations; 5) the main list of words, i. e., the dictionary itself; 6) additional material, various appendices (Stupin 1985, p. 42). Let us look more closely at the defined objects and formulate general requirements for their description.

The dictionary's Foreword. The concept as a theoretical component of the dictionary is formulated before the lexical material collection and the dictionary register compilation. It is often presented in the introductory part (Demska 2010, p. 28), which is given as an introductory article. This foreword describes the general principles of the dictionary's construction and specific instructions for its use (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 61). The foreword begins with a description of the history of the dictionary's creation, then briefly defines its scope and tasks. The last part of the foreword is an exposition of information about how the dictionary presents the material and the main principles that guided the authors in its creation/compilation (Stupin 1985, p. 43).

How to Use the Dictionary. This section justifies such vital information as the structure of the dictionary entry, methods of lexicographical processing of words, the placement of derived words, remarks (prohibitive, restrictive), and grammatical characteristics of the word (Stupin 1985, p. 43).

Pronunciation of Words/Phrases. Fixing the pronunciation of English words is one of the main tasks of English language dictionaries. Currently, in English and American lexicography, there are two central systems for representing word

pronunciations: 1) using a specially compiled phonetic alphabet – "international phonetic transcription"; 2) using the English alphabet (Stupin 1985, p. 44). In the Ukrainian language, word pronunciation is usually accompanied by phonetic transcription (Shevchuk 2011, p. 45) and prosodic characteristics (stresses/accentuation).

List of Abbreviations. Abbreviations and symbols used in dictionaries allow for the most economical and convenient presentation of information that repeats from word to word (Stupin 1985, p. 44).

The Main List of Words. In any philological-type dictionary, the left and right parts are distinguished. The left part of the dictionary is its word list, i. e., the headwords, or register units, described in the lexicographical work (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 62). In this context, L. P. Stupin distinguishes two methods of presenting headwords, or headwords, in the dictionary, arranged according to the alphabetical principle: 1) word by word (word-by-word method), which means that the headwords, or headwords, are presented alphabetically, but initially do not take into account those parts of the words that follow a hyphen or space; 2) letter by letter (letter-by-letter), where words are arranged alphabetically and take into account all parts of the words (written with a hyphen or separately) (Stupin 1985, p. 45).

Appendices. Analyzing dictionaries published in Great Britain, Russia, the USA, and Ukraine, L. P. Stupin notes that appendices contain two types of information: 1) lists of words that, for some reason, did not make it into the main list (e. g., geographical names, surnames of prominent people, foreign words, expressions); 2) encyclopedic material that includes information about countries of the world, various geographical names, information about notable individuals, systems of measures and weights (Stupin 1985, p. 45).

The second issue is the complex process of **linguistic construction** of dictionary entries (microtexts) contained within the dictionary corpus (Kudashyov 2007, p. 56). Therefore, it seems entirely logical to study the concept of *the dictionary's microstructure* (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 56) – "the format, volume, composition of a dictionary entry, presentation of information about linguistic units (etymological, encyclopedic, semantic, grammatical, word-formation, stylistic, illustrative) described in the dictionary" (Wiegand 1983, p. 14).

Yu. M. Karaulov defines *linguistic construction* as "a set of generalized methods and techniques for compiling and combining "problem-solving samples", extrapolation of already existing, ready-made theoretical and practical results obtained in various fields of linguistics, their direct or heuristic use to overcome difficulties and solve problems arising in the same or other areas when constructing new linguistic objects". To create or build a particular "thing" is not only to be able to explain those properties of language that are used and on which it is based, not only to explain certain regularities of the linguistic structure but

also to discover new properties of the object being created, thus expanding knowledge about human language in general (Karaulov 1981, p. 16).

The main factor in linguistic construction is "how to make" a particular object. For an encyclopedia, solving this issue involves analyzing the relationship between different language systems, transformed units, their structuring, and description criteria. Hence, linguistic construction is not only a way to create new "things" but also a method of study that reveals significant aspects of the linguistic material, primarily involving its analysis stage, followed by its synthesis stage (Karaulov 1981, p. 17–18). Two interconnected principles play a significant role here: 1) non-differentiation of ordinary levels in the language structure, allowing for a non-traditional re-categorization of the object under study; 2) introducing new descriptive units. Moreover, according to the researcher, an essential characteristic of the principles is the concept of "averaging". Accordingly, averaging by certain features is not only permissible but mandatory when constructing new objects, which implies using a massive amount of data (ibid., p. 22–24).

Speaking of *constructing a dictionary entry*, there are numerous variants proposed by scholars, including M. L. Apazhev (Apazhev 2005, 2012), Yu. D. Apresyan (Apresyan 1988, 1993, 1995), R. A. Budagov (Budagov 1989), V. V. Vinogradov (Vinogradov 1977), P. M. Denisov (Denisov 1976, 1978, 1988, 1993), V. V. Dubichinsky (Dubichinsky 1995, 1998, 2008), A. I. Kiselevsky (Kiselevsky 1977), F. P. Sorokoletov (Sorokoletov 1985, 2010), N. Yu. Shvedova (Shvedova 2005), and others. Given that the macrostructure is essentially *the dictionary* (Dubichinsky 2008, pp. 60–63), *the microstructure*, or *the dictionary entry*, is the dictionary's primary structural element (Ibid., p. 56), which, in contemporary scientific literature, has a wide range of definitions and interpretations.

The dictionary entry, at its current stage of development, is an entirely independent unit of the dictionary that meets its objectives and combines information about the lexeme as an element of a particular class of words, focusing on its (lexemic) individual characteristics on the one hand, and, on the other hand, revealing new properties of the created object, thus expanding knowledge about human language in general (Skiybina 1984, p. 200). In the "Basic Dictionary of Linguistic Terms", a dictionary entry is defined as "an article that explains the headword in a dictionary" (BSLT 2003, p. 78). Meanwhile, Yu. D. Apresyan calls *the dictionary entry* a kind of "dictionary portrait", a comprehensive and redundant characterization of the properties of a specific lexeme within an integral description of the language. It is noted that a complete lexicographical portrait as an element of any dictionary presupposes: 1) inclusion of fundamentally new types of information about the lexeme (e.g., its prosodic, communicative, pragmatic properties); 2) traditional interpretation of the word combined with separate semantic structures; 3) analysis of the motivational

connection between different properties of the lexeme; 4) detailed description of the lexeme within a clearly defined lexicographical type – a compact group of words with common properties (prosodic, syntactic, semantic, communicative) (cited by: Boguslavsky 2000, pp. 485–486).

P. M. Denisov suggests considering the "canonization" (recognition as standard) of those dictionary entry schemes that have been established in the best (within their genre) dictionaries (Denisov 1988, pp. 51–52). In his opinion, an ideal universal dictionary entry should contain the following components: 1) headword; 2) its formal characteristics – grammatical, orthoepic, orthographic; 3) its semantization; 4) extracts from texts illustrating a particular formal semantic feature of the headword; 5) indication of the "neighbors" of the headword in the language's lexical system across different components of the language's semantic space; 6) references and notes of various nature and purpose (Denisov 1993, p. 217).

However, there is another perspective on the structure and design of a dictionary entry. A dictionary entry is formatted as a paragraph consisting of a headline that is graphically emphasized (traditionally in bold font) and the information related to this headline (Berkov 1996, pp. 15, 82). However, I. S. Kudashyov believes that the part of the dictionary entry following the headline has no particular name in lexicography. Sometimes, this part is referred to as the dictionary entry. However, this term is more suitable for denoting the combination of the headline and the related information. Therefore, the author introduces the term "body of the dictionary entry" (Kudashyov 2007, p. 56).

I. S. Kudashyov also notes that the number of dictionary entries does not necessarily coincide with the number of dictionary units. For space economy or to reflect systemic connections, a dictionary entry may combine from two to several dozen dictionary units. These units, including transitions from one micro-entry to another, may or may not be graphically distinguished. The researcher adds that if a micro-entry and its headline are presented in the same way as the headline of the entire entry, such micro-entries are called sub-entries, and their headlines are termed sub-lemmas in lexicography (Kudashyov 2007, pp. 56–57).

A dictionary entry with clearly defined sub-lemmas is called *a dictionary nest* – "a certain type of dictionary entry used by lexicographers to demonstrate morphological derivation relationships between vocabularies" (Karpovich 1976, p. 205). In English sources, nesting based on form is called niching, unlike semantic nesting, which is referred to as nesting (Bergenholtz & Tarp 1995, pp. 193–194; Hausmann & Wiegand 1989, p. 336), and when presenting each sub-entry on a separate line, it is referred to as listing, and when presented as a continuous line, it is referred to as clustering (Bergenholtz & Tarp 1995, p. 193). Nesting can be conducted based on semantic and systemic connections between dictionary units

(Kudashyov 2007, p. 58). In specialized lexicon dictionaries, this is often the genus-species relationship, where species terms are placed into the nest of a genus term. However, relationships between terms in the nest can also be synonymous and antonymous (Grynev 1995, p. 34).

Regarding a philological type lexicographic publication, its dictionary entry should contain the following components: 1) headword; 2) its phonetic characteristics; 3) its grammatical characteristics; 4) semantization of the headword (interpretation, definition, translation equivalent); 5) combinatory characteristics of the headword; 6) word-formation possibilities of the headword; 7) etymological references; 8) illustrative examples (lexicographic illustrations); 9) lexicographic remarks; 10) encyclopedic information; 11) references, notes (Dubichinsky 2008, pp. 56–57).

Summarizing the above, we note that the main stages of designing the mega- and macrostructure of a philological-type dictionary are: 1) forming the author's team; 2) creating the dictionary project; 3) creating a dictionary card file (or computer data bank); 4) compiling a word register, systematizing the lexical material according to the methodology adopted by the author's team; 5) developing the author's concept of the dictionary entry structure; 6) direct lexicographic (automated, computer) interpretation of the selected linguistic units – the main stage of dictionary creation; 7) preparing the dictionary for publication. At the same time, we focus on constructing the micro- and mediostructures of the dictionary of this type, in particular on presenting: 1) the headword; 2) phonetic characteristics; 3) grammatical characteristics; 4) semantization of the headword (interpretation, definition, translation equivalent); 5) combinatory characteristics of the headword; 6) word-formation possibilities of the headword; 7) etymological reference; 8) lexicographic illustrations; 9) lexicographic remarks; 10) encyclopedic information; 11) references, notes.

1.3 Construction of Dictionary Entries in Etymological Sources

1.3.1 The Place of Etymology in Philological Type Lexicographic Sources

The socio-historical process, accompanied by the development of material and spiritual culture and the expansion of horizons for international cooperation in education, science, and technology, significantly contributes to the formation of extensive intercultural communication between representatives of different ethnolinguistic groups. These groups engage in intensive cultural, economic, political, and other interactions through constant dialogic communication between speakers of different languages (Borshevsky 2010, pp. 14–15). This trend necessitates delving into the history of a word's semantics and origins, which

guarantees successful communication among speakers. ***Etymology*** studies this problem.

The term "etymology", or origin (from Greek ἔτυμον – "truth, true meaning; etymon, i. e., the original meaning of a word", associated with the adjective ἔτυμος – "true, correct", derived from ἐτεός (ἐτός) – "real, true, correct", and the component λόγος, used only as the second part of compound words, from λόγος – "word, meaning, concept, science"; Greek ἔτυμολογια – "etymology; the true, i. e., the original meaning of a word or the establishment of the original meaning of a word"), emerged in the 8th century in Ancient Greece (ESUM 1985, Vol. 2, p. 173) and is currently interpreted as: 1) a branch of linguistics that studies the origin of words; 2) a complex of research methods necessary to clarify the origin of a word, and the result of this clarification – decision, hypothesis; 3) the origin of a word. Suppose the subject of etymology as a branch of linguistics is the study of sources and the process of forming the lexical composition of a language, including the reconstruction of the lexical composition of the most ancient (usually pre-literate) period. In that case, its direct object is so-called dark words, in which the connection between form and meaning remains unclear ("Why is it called so?"). The obscuration of this connection, or de-etymologization, results from historical changes in the form and meaning of words and lexical and grammatical systems of the language (Varbot 1997, p. 643).

In philosophical discourse, the term "etymology" acquires dimensions that add to the philological "etymology", the meaning of the origin of knowledge, which is actualized through man's perceptual and rational nature and the revelation of this knowledge in the word. For, as defined by A. P. Kononenko, the origin of a word implies the integration of at least three main components – philosophical, historical-cultural, and linguistic; the latter, in turn, includes a component from the history of the language (Kononenko 2006, pp. 46–49). At one time, A. S. Khomyakov, in one of his "letters on philosophy", stated that "etymology is a conversation with the past in its most essential meaning, a conversation with the thought of past generations, which were eliminated from sounds, and this is a great matter (…)" (cited by: Granin 2013, p. 200).

The above-mentioned definitions or attempts to define the term "etymology" give all reasons to talk about the main object of its study – the word as a component of most etymological studies, which in the imaginations of ancient philosophers had a sacred and holy understanding. For instance, in Ancient Greece and Rome, the word and its meaning were inseparable, as evidenced by M. M. Makovsky: "At one time, the meaning was considered the essence, an attribute of the object, similar to its shape, color, chemical and physical properties, and composition", hence this stage was characterized by "fascination with onomatopoeia and sound symbolism in the interpretation of words" (Makovsky 1996, pp. 12–13).

For Plato, *etymology* served as a means of solving the problem of whether language is "by nature" or "by convention". Meanwhile, Socrates held a different view, believing that "things have their being and essence, independent of our perception, so they must be treated according to their nature, not our whims" (cited by: Pizani 1956, p. 11). A similar argument can be found in Plato's dialogue "Cratylus", in the works of the Stoics, who always emphasized that the main tasks of etymology are: 1) presenting the correspondence of the word denoted by the object; 2) establishing religious, moral, and metaphysical truths hidden in etymons (Ibid., p. 21). The idea of a close connection between the object and its sound shell was expressed, which later became the basis for the theory of the external and internal forms of the word.

The most vivid representative of the view on etymology is the scholar Marcus Terentius, who, in his work "Se lingua Latina", considers etymology as part of grammar, asserting that the latter studied the origins of word origins and convincing that language is constructed and subsequently must be described in three sciences – etymology, morphology, and syntax. Based on his views, lexicography has established four stages of interpreting word meanings, which include: 1) reflecting the origins of words; 2) studying the step-by-step emergence of words; 3) delving into the hidden essence of the word; 4) comprehending "primitive words" (Susov 1984, p. 28).

The etymological principles and methods of antiquity and the Middle Ages coincide. Thus, the etymology of antiquity and the Early Middle Ages in its original understanding is deeply mythological, associated with a "ritual" that must be considered in a broad sense of the word: not only as a "theatrical performance", a sacred means of influencing the surrounding reality (Makovsky 1996, p. 76) but also as an "initiating moment in mythological consciousness", as well as the framework within which consciousness and language as a symbolic system were formed (Kokhanovsky 2003, p. 14). Therefore, from the scholars' perspective of the Middle Ages, a word is not just a chaotic set of letters and sounds but an encrypted set of sign symbols, in which information about the people's millennium fate, customs, worldview, and culture is hidden. In this context, one of the main tasks of a linguist is to uncover the secret, sacred meaning of the word, understand its internal structure, and only then determine its geographical and areal affiliation (Horoshchuk 2009, p. 14).

From the 19th century, etymology was considered a linguistic science, not a philosophical one, as evidenced by Y. Malkiel: "At this time, etymology acquires the status of a scientific discipline" (Malkiel 1993, p. 2). During this period, the loss of the sacred sense of words is observed; hence, the semantic and etymological meaning of the lexeme comes to the forefront, and the main task of the etymologist-lexicographer becomes the reconstruction of the text, taking into account the language characteristics of the corresponding (analyzed) era. Con-

sequently, the 19th-century dictionary becomes one of the most essential sources documenting the history and etymology of words (Horoshchuk 2009, p. 17).

The arguments presented above once again prove that in contemporary linguistic practice, the term "etymology" is used in three meanings: 1) a branch of linguistics studying the origin of words; 2) the origin (regarding the verbal sign); 3) the establishment of the word's origin (Vvedenskaya 2008, p. 8–9). O. M. Trubachev also shared this view, understanding etymology in 1961 as "a scientific research procedure aimed at revealing the origin of a word, as well as the result of this procedure" (Trubachev 1961, p. 407). An exciting and apt comparison of etymology with archaeology was made by L. O. Vvedenskaya and M. P. Kolesnikov: "Indeed, a language researcher is forced to conduct "archaeological excavations" to establish the etymology of a single word" (Vvedenskaya 2008, p. 88).

Today, scientific and unscientific (non-scientific) etymologies are distinguished in linguistics. The purpose of scientific etymology is to conduct etymological analysis, the essence of which boils down to performing such tasks: 1) for the principal original words of a specific language – comparison with words of related languages and clarification of their formal and semantic history within the language base; 2) for derivative words within a particular language, establishing their components within a specific language; 3) for borrowings – indication of the source and paths of borrowing (Abaev 1952, p. 57; Abaev 1986, p. 30). It is noted that scientific etymology is based on the concepts of the external and internal form of the word, confirmed by A. A. Potebnya in his work "Thought and Language": "In a word, we distinguish external form, articulate sound, content, which is objectified with the help of sound, and internal form, or the closest etymological meaning, how the content is expressed" (Potebnya 2007, p. 93). It is important to emphasize that when creating/compiling a dictionary of any type, the lexicographer focuses primarily on the internal form of the word, based on which its interpretation is compiled.

The definition of unscientific etymology is based on two main processes: *de-etymologization* and *re-etymologization.* Thus, an essential aspect of etymology is the process of de-etymologization – "a phenomenon when there is a loss of the original motivation of a word, based on its word-formation connections within the etymological nest" (Arkadyeva 1990, p. 4), characterized by the fact that it results from historical changes in the word, and its outcomes, as a rule, are represented in the contemporary language (Balalaeva 2012, p. 238). It is interesting that as a result of de-etymologization, cognate words, which in the past were members of one perceived word-formation paradigm, in the contemporary language become etymons – "lexical units of the modern literary language that have lost former familial connections, original motivation, and remained outside the microstructures that existed based on etymological word-formation con-

nections" (Arkadyeva 1990, p. 5). Meanwhile, the etymon remains a universal element of characterization of unmotivated words for the contemporary language, determining the meaning of the word at the time of its emergence, established through etymological data, and refers to the etymological-semantic field covering the content side of cognate words and polysemantic ones (Ibid., p. 7).

Research into secondary word-formation connections and lexical-semantic microsystems, according to T. G. Arkadyeva, relies on the process of **re-etymologization** – "a phenomenon where a word that has lost its connection with the etymological nest and word-formation motivation, as a result of secondary reinterpretation, becomes associated with a nest of phonetically similar words" (Arkadyeva 1990, p. 7). It is noted that non-scientific etymology includes such types of re-etymologization: 1) folk etymology, often represented in the reinterpretation of borrowed words (examples include various languages demonstrating reinterpretation based on phonetic similarity or accidental associations); 2) arbitrary etymology, found in children's language (for instance, making whimsical connections between words and concepts); 3) deliberate etymologization, used for stylistic purposes in literature (Arkadyeva 1990, p. 7).

The non-scientific type of etymology, known in contemporary linguistics as *folk etymology* – "the search for the internal form of a lexical unit to explain its meaning" (Makovsky 1996, p. 34); is a type of etymology "based not on scientific principles of analysis, but on random comparisons (…)" (Otkupshchikov 2005, p. 315). These definitions are not definitive, as some linguists lean towards the notion of "false etymology" or "naive", considering this direction of etymological research as misconceptions in the use of lexical units, particularly of foreign origin. Others argue that it is incorrect to label folk etymology as false, emphasizing that 1) *even scientific etymology*, not just folk, can be erroneous; 2) *naive etymology* is not necessarily false; 3) there are instances where so-called "folk-etymological" lexical units are incorporated into the lexical inventory of a language as legitimate lexemes (Vvedenskaya 2008, p. 39–40; Otkupshchikov 2005, p. 316).

In other words, folk etymology involves the transformation and reinterpretation of a borrowed (less often native) word in the likeness of a phonetically similar word in the native language, establishing semantic connections based on purely external, incidental phonetic coincidence without considering the facts of their origin (Rozental 1998, p. 172). A more contemporary interpretation by A. Liberman suggests that folk, or popular etymology, is the reconstruction of the meaning of obscure words to make them phonetically similar to lexemes of the native language (Liberman 2005, p. 42).

These definitions provide grounds to say that folk etymology changes the external shell of a word at phonetic, morphological, and sometimes grammatical levels, inevitably leading to a change in the internal structure of the word.

Summarizing the above, we note the following conclusions: ***Etymology***, as the science of word origins, is considered one of the most fundamental areas of comparative-historical linguistics, where the word, as a component of most etymological studies, held a sacred and divine understanding in the imaginations of ancient philosophers. Both scientific and unscientific (non-scientific) etymologies hold essential places in lexicographic sources of any type. Scientific etymology entails conducting etymological analysis, which includes comparing the original words of a specific language with those of related languages to clarify their formal and semantic history, establishing the components of derivative words within a specific language, and indicating the sources and paths of borrowings. *Unscientific (non-scientific) etymology* is an integral part of a lexicographic source in cases where a language's lexical inventory contains words with unclear histories of origin. Another issue is the criteria for constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources.

1.3.2   Criteria for Constructing Dictionary Entries in Etymological Sources

The modern practice of lexicography demonstrates a different tendency in the creation/composition of etymological sources, which has always been accompanied by distinguishing between the concepts of "the history of a word" and its "etymology". As explained by O. B. Vain, the difference between them is significant: "There are many words "without etymology" (i.e., whose etymology is unknown to us), but with a vibrant history and numerous semantic changes". Hence, "to describe the entire corpus of a language's lexical inventory, an etymological dictionary should cover all the most important aspects of a word's history and (…) can be defined as historical-etymological" (Vain 1990, p. 12).

The tradition of compiling etymologies of individual words dates back to ancient times. However, etymological dictionaries in the modern sense only appeared at the end of the 18th century. Their predecessors in the 17th century included works like "Etymologicum Linguae Latinae" ("Etymology of the Latin Language") edited by Vossius (1662) and "Etymologicon Linguae Anglicanae: Seu Explicatio Vocum Anglicarum Etymologica Ex Propriis Fontibus Scil. Ex Linguis Duodecim" ("Etymology of the English Language"), edited by Stephen Skinner (1671). By the 19th century, after the laws of regular sound changes had been established, compiling etymological resources became one of the most critical tasks for specialists in comparative-historical linguistics (Etymological Dictionary).

Compiling lexicographical sources remains one of the oldest types of philological activity. The dictionary entry, as the fundamental component of any lexicographical publication, thus requires an apparent structure (Polyuga 2002, p. 199). Lexicographers focus on sources with a homogeneous structure of dictionary entries (synonymous, antonymous, paronymous, homonymous, dialectal). However, there are also sources (etymological, historical, orthographic, orthoepic, dictionaries of grammatical difficulties, foreign words) with diverse lexical material, where dictionary entries are analyzed and described according to specific (individual) models (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 134). According to S. O. Vyvenko's observations, clear rules for constructing dictionary entries and organizing material in etymological sources still need to be developed (Vyvenko 2000, p. 55). L. V. Polyuga explains that "when starting to create a lexicon of any type, we often cannot foresee all the components of the dictionary entries of a particular publication, as the dictionary entry is the most important element of future lexicographical processing" (Polyuga 2003, p. 16), making the format of presenting material in such dictionaries arbitrary (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56).

Constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources of any language involves organizing two main zones: the zone of headword and the zone of etymology (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57), where the headword field may contain various information assembled by the compiler and the etymology field's lexicographical information is limited to the framework of etymological description. As for the headword, or register unit, P. Zhmigrodsky notes that it is a conventional sign that serves only as a "label" for the dictionary entry, assigned based on agreement, similar to assigning "labels" to lexemes: the headword noun represents the entry corresponding to the nominative singular form, the verb – to the infinitive form (cited in Shcherba 1974, p. 56). K. Hoffmann and E. Tichy propose their criteria for describing a dictionary entry in etymological sources of any language: 1) attestation of the headword of the entry; 2) written evidence; 3) lexical characteristics; 4) semantics; 5) reconstruction experience; 6) etymological connections (Hoffmann, Tichy 1980).

Analyzing the criteria mentioned above, S. O. Vyvenko, in her dissertation "Indo-European Etymological Dictionaries in a Hypertext Environment", somewhat expanded and detailed the stages of constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources of any language, believing that the latter should be described according to specific criteria (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57).

Table 1.3.2. Criteria for Constructing Dictionary Entries in Etymological Sources

I. The Zone of Headword	II. The Zone of Etymology

1. Headword.
2. Translation.
3. Grammatical and stylistic information:
  – Grammatical remarks (grammatical forms, grammatical comments);
  – Stylistic remarks (dialectal forms, archaisms, metaphors, taboos, euphemisms).
4. Semantic development:
  – Changes in meaning in a synchronic and/or diachronic perspective;
  – Lexical connections (polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy, specialized terminology, folk etymology).
5. Derivatives.
6. Attestations:
  – Source;
  – Dating;
  – Written attestations (results of text criticism; graphical issues).
7. Illustrations.
	1. Historical and chronological development.
	2. Genetic material:
	  – The organizational form of the material (within a group, within a family, reconstruction with variants, partial distribution, relations between groups);
	  – Presentation form of the material (grammatical remarks, attestations, semantic development, illustrations, analogies, history of borrowing, discussion of contentious cases, comments).
	3. Reconstruction experience:
	  – Phonological reconstruction;
	  – Morphological reconstruction;
	  – Semantic reconstruction;
	  – Syntactic reconstruction.

Concluding those above, it is observed that the headword field zone and the etymology field zone remain the most challenging in constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources, as the lexicographer must resolve the principal task of providing a comprehensive, detailed characterization of words and their interconnections and to present various versions of their origins based on a robust scientific-evidential basis, rather than merely characterizing objects and phenomena.

Conclusions to Chapter 1

The current era of lexicography development is characterized by a tendency to seek explanations for certain aspects of reality by formulating general laws or principles that can be experimentally verified. The linguistic tradition of studying lexicographical sources relies on the works of lexicography classics (B. Yu. Gorodetskii, P. M. Denisov, Yu. M. Karaulov, L. P. Stupin, L. V. Shcherba). It defines it in its broad understanding as an independent scientific activity with its subject of study, scientific and methodological principles, its theoretical issues, its place among other language sciences, as well as pragmatists (V. V. Dubichinskii, I. S. Kudashev, R. R. K. Hartmann, T. Piotrowski, H. E. Wiegand), who

attribute lexicography to applied disciplines, and even question its scientific status (R. R. K. Hartmann, T. Piotrowski), among which two critical directions of its study are activated: *lexicographical theory* (A. S. Gerd, A. N. Baranov, L. V. Shcherba), or *metalexicography* (M. Banko, H. E. Wiegand, P. Zmigrodzki) and *lexicographical practice* (P. M. Denisov, V. A. Shirokov, L. V. Shcherba), or *lexicography* (L. Polyuga).

Meanwhile, it is observed that defining and characterizing lexicography as science is tasked with the dictionary as a means of organizing and presenting society's knowledge, which is understood, firstly, as a systematically arranged list of linguistic units (words, idioms, morphemes) subject to lexicographical interpretation, and secondly, as a totality of all headwords of a language (Yu. D. Apresyan, J. Vandries, V. V. Dubichinsky, V. V. Morkovkin)

It is noted that the principles of generalization of dictionary information as the modeling of the content plan of a language are based on 1) the heredity (sequence) of lexicographical works, 2) subjectivism, 3) pragmatism, 4) the principle of normativity in the selection and presentation of lexicography; 5) the principle of theoretical (the latest information) and practical aspects of lexicographical works, presented by V. V. Dubichinsky, as well as on the principles of relativity and orientation towards the addressee, standardization, economy, simplicity, completeness, efficiency, semantic gradation of information presentation, identified by P. M. Denisov.

The section also identified the main stages of designing the mega- and macrostructures of a philological-type dictionary: 1) forming an author's team; 2) creating a dictionary project; 3) creating a dictionary card index (or computer database); 4) compiling a word register, systematizing lexical material according to the methodology adopted by the author's team; 5) developing the author's concept of the dictionary entry structure; 6) direct lexicographical (automated, computer) interpretation of selected language units – the main stage of dictionary creation; 7) preparing the dictionary for publication. Indeed, it is worth emphasizing the necessity of constructing the structure of micro- and mediostructures of such a type of dictionary, which include: 1) the headword; 2) phonetic characteristics; 3) grammatical characteristics; 4) semantization of the headword (explanation, definition, translation equivalent); 5) combinatory characteristics of the headword; 6) word-formation possibilities of the headword; 7) etymological references; 8) illustrative examples (lexicographical illustrations); 9) lexicographical remarks; 10) encyclopedic information; 11) references, notes.

Future research paths will involve the principles of constructing two zones of dictionary entries: the headword field and the etymology field (S. O. Vyvenko) in etymological sources of the English language, as etymology, remaining a science of word origins, is considered one of the most critical areas of com-

parative historical linguistics. Therefore, constructing dictionary entries in dictionaries of this type is accompanied by the inclusion of scientific and anti-scientific (non-scientific) etymologies: first, scientific etymology involves conducting an etymological analysis, the essence of which is reduced to performing such tasks: 1) for the principal original words of a specific language – comparison with words of related languages and clarification of their formal and semantic history within the language – basis; 2) for words that are derivatives within a specific language, establishing their components within a particular language; 3) for borrowings – indication of the source of borrowing, and second, anti-scientific (non-scientific) etymology is aimed at highlighting words with an unclear history of origin, which are found in the dictionary stock of any language.

Chapter 2. Methods for Identifying Linguocognitive-Synergetic Principles to Constructing Microstructures in Etymological Dictionaries

2.1 Historical-Philological Approach to Developing a General Taxonomy of Lexicographic Sources

Contemporary lexicography continues the study of various kinds and types of dictionaries (Stupin 1985, p. 12), as well as each type of dictionary (Tabanakova 2001, p. 63), given that in today's information society, there are emerging new needs for obtaining comprehensive information about the surrounding world.

The origins of the problem of dictionary typology trace back to the works of L. V. Shcherba, who proposed systematizing lexicographical sources based on such oppositions: 1) *academic type ofv dictionary* – reference dictionary; 2) *encyclopedic dictionary* – general dictionary; 3) *thesaurus* – standard (explanatory or translational) dictionary; 4) *standard (explanatory or translational) dictionary* – ideological (ideographic) dictionary; 5) *explanatory dictionary* – translational dictionary; 6) *non-historical dictionary* – historical dictionary (Shcherba 1974, pp. 97–116).

Currently, the maximal lexical system (a term by P. M. Denisov) cannot be embodied in just one lexicographic publication, as there is a need for an interconnected system of reference dictionary-encyclopedic publications, designed so that all publications in this series mutually complement each other, and each publication, in turn, individually reflected a significant part of the maximal lexical system (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 64). Here, the decisive role belongs to *the system of dictionaries* (a term by V. V. Dubichinsky) – "an aggregate of various genre lexicographic sources, which provide a multifaceted description of a certain (including the same) array of language units (for example, a dictionary system should consist of explanatory, ideographic, grammatical, reverse, and other dictionaries oriented towards the lexical core of the language)" (Morkovkin 1986, p. 106).

The problem remains in the relationship between "dictionary typology" and "dictionary classification" concepts. In practice, typology and classification are

often used synonymously (Tabanakova 2001, p. 48), yet A. D. Shreyder distinguishes these concepts, asserting that "typology" should be considered as the basis for classification, which, in turn, is based on the epistemological status of the concept "type" (Shreyder 1981, pp. 1–5).

The dictionary type is determined "by two factors: the character of the lexical material and its practical significance" (Kuznetsova 1989, p. 3)—meanwhile, Yu. M. Karaulov adds that this type is determined "by a certain dominant characteristic of the dictionary – explanatory, phraseological, antonyms, which coincides with its name, i. e., the existing typology of dictionaries is a typology of their names"; however, "the information contained in the mentioned types of lexicographic sources partially overlaps: for example, an explanatory dictionary includes phraseology, and a phraseological one provides explanations of idioms". Therefore, apart from the semantics in explanatory dictionaries, we can also observe grammatical, phonetic (orthoepic), stylistic, and partially etymological information (Karaulov 1981, p. 43).

Of course, there are also cases where the concept of "dictionary type" is understood in its broadest sense. N. O. Lukyanova understands *a dictionary type* as "a certain abstractly represented multitude of real lexicographic sources, united by a certain general feature (features), in its opposition to a certain another multitude of publications by a certain differential feature (features)". In this context, the researcher proposes to distinguish three levels: at the first level, one type of dictionary is defined in opposition to a specific other type; at the second level, subtypes are identified within a specific type of dictionary based on the presence of differential features in dictionaries; at the third level, this subtype can branch into varieties, sub-varieties by other differential features. As a result, a type is an abstractly represented amount of lexicographic sources on the first and second levels of typology (Lukyanova 1996, pp. 23–24).

As for the concept of "dictionary classification", it can be justified as "grouping all lexicographic sources within a certain type, subtype, variety" (Lukyanova 1996, p. 24).

The above allows us to talk about the dominance of the term type, which includes lower-order concepts – subtype and class, which, in turn, can be divided into kind and variety. Schematically, this looks as follows:

TYPE → SUBTYPE → CLASS → KIND → VARIETY

At the beginning of the article, it was noted that L. V. Shcherba had introduced the term oppositions into lexicographic science (Shcherba 1974, p. 64) to categorize lexicographic sources into specific types and classes, totaling six. Today, scholars use terminology such as parameters (over 60) by Yu. M. Karaulov (Karaulov 1988); grounds by V. V. Morkovkin (3) and by L. P. Stupin (7)

(Morkovkin 1994; Stupin 1985); facets (about 8) by V. F. Romanskaia (Romanskaia 1978).

Let us attempt to define the main criteria for classifying lexicographic sources and develop their typological classification. Such criteria can vary – from 3 in V. V. Morkovkin to 60 in Yu. M. Karaulov. The most crucial, in our opinion, are five criteria: 1) the object of lexicographic description; 2) the method of lexicon organization; 3) the quantitative composition of the lexicographic source and the volume of lexicographic information; 4) the method of presenting the lexical meaning of a word; 5) the functions, purposes, designation, and parameters of the description of the lexicographic unit (see Appendix No. 1).

The object of lexicographic description. Depending on the *purpose*, *object*, and *nature of the explanation of lexicographic material*, lexicographic sources are conventionally divided into three main types: *encyclopedic* (or encyclopedias), *linguistic/philological*, *encyclopedic-linguistic/encyclopedic-philological* (Dubichinsky 1994; Romanskaia 1978; Stupin 1985; Shcherba 1974).

By the method of vocabulary organization, dictionaries are compiled based on such principles: 1) *alphabetical* – by the alphabet; 2) *nest* – grouping in one "nest" (within one dictionary entry) words that have a common root (sub-type – alphabetical-nest); 3) *ideographic* – words are grouped and compiled by ordinary meaning, or theme; 4) *inversion* (*reverse*) – words are presented alphabetically from the end; 5) *frequency* – words are presented by descending frequency: from the most to the least used (Apazhev 2005, p. 32–33; Dubichinsky 2008, p. 69–71; Morkovkin 1994, p. 13–23; Romanskaia 1978, p. 181–188; Stupin 1985, p. 12–18; Shcherba 1974, p. 265–304).

The quantitative composition of the lexicographic data and the volume of lexicographic information. Lexicographic sources can be divided into classes: large – comprehensive/unabridged (single-/two-/multi-volume); *medium* – desk-size dictionaries/semi-abridged; small/short (pocket) – abridged/pocket size dictionaries. L. Zgusta proposes distinguishing another class – *extra-large lexicographic sources* (over 400,000 words) (Zgusta 1971, p. 25).

The method of presenting the lexical meaning of a word. Speaking of the linguistic/philological lexicographic sources, researchers distinguish such classes: *monolingual* (if the headword is described using the same language as itself), *bilingual* (when compilers of the source have applied only two languages) or multilingual (when compilers of the source have used more than two languages) (Dubichinsky 2008; Romanskaia 1978; Stupin 1985; Shcherba 1974). It is well-known that bilingual and multilingual are translational dictionaries in which the translation of words from one language to another is provided (Shevchuk 2011, p. 61).

The functions, purposes, designation, and parameters of the description of the lexicographic unit. Most linguistic/philological lexicographic sources are

grouped into monolingual publications, where certain aspects of words are explained (Shevchuk 2011, p. 59). Meanwhile, the type linguistic/philological lexicographic sources encompass such subtypes: *systematic* (explanatory, inherently systematic, and professional sources) and *reference* (scientific-reference and practical-reference (normalizing) sources) (Lukyanova 1996, p. 29). Because contemporary lexicography contains many lexicographic sources, we propose introducing two concepts for their differentiation – "lexical" and "non-lexical".

The first subtype of systematic lexicographic sources includes *explanatory*, inherently systematic, and *professional sources.* Regarding the class of explanatory sources, they, on the one hand, remain the pinnacle of lexicography, and on the other, sufficiently represent the lexico-phraseological composition of the language with explanations of direct and metaphorical meanings, grammatical and stylistic features and also provide examples of the use of a specific headword/registry unit (Shevchuk 2011, p. 62). The main types of explanatory sources are 1) dictionaries of the literary language (normative dictionaries; 2) historical and etymological dictionaries, 3) popular-spoken dictionaries, and 4) dialectal (regional) dictionaries.

The next class – *inherently systematic sources* – aims to record and describe a specific fragment of the language system: language units in their systemic connections and relationships. Here, the object of recording and interpretation can be an individual word, a series of words, a group (field) of words, or a certain micro- or macro-system (Lukyanova 1996, p. 35). Among inherently systematic sources, we distinguish three types: 1) *synonymic dictionaries* (dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, paronyms, lexical difficulties, homonyms, lexical variants of a word); 2) *word formation dictionaries*; 3) *field dictionaries* (ideographic dictionaries (thesauruses); dictionaries that group words by their functional characteristics; dictionaries of foreign words; non-normative dictionaries; idiolect dictionaries; onomasticons; onomasticon).

In contemporary lexicography, sources are built on the nesting principle, where those nests of words connected by formal-semantic derivation relationships are recorded. Primarily, these are word formation dictionaries (Lukyanova 1996, p. 36).

The next type – *field dictionaries* – are lexicographic sources that systematize words by semantic fields and groups. This definition fits ideographic dictionaries. Besides, field dictionaries can be divided into explanatory (bilateral) and non-explanatory (list-based – left-sided, nest) lexicographic sources, which either only record or also describe individual groups, fields, strata, arrays of words connected by such features: a) closeness of meanings; b) "verbal-associative network" (a term by Yu. M. Karaulov); c) functionality; d) origin; e) relation to idiolect; f) relation to the referential sphere (Lukyanova 1996, p. 36).

The mentioned differential features allow naming seven varieties of field dictionaries: 1) ideographic dictionaries (thesauruses); 2) dictionaries that group words by their functional characteristics; 3) dictionaries of foreign words; 4) non-normative dictionaries; 5) idiolect dictionaries; 6) onomasticons; 7) onomasticon.

Another class of lexicographic publications consists of professional sources, which S. V. Shevchuk interprets as "linguistic dictionaries that provide the meanings of terms in a certain field of knowledge". Today, English and Ukrainian languages have *terminological dictionaries* in many fields: biology, geology, literary studies, mathematics, medicine, linguistics, and sports. We encounter monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual sources, among which we distinguish such types: terminological, special (sectoral, narrowly sectoral, multi-sectoral), classifiers, terminological thesauruses, and minimums.

There are lexicographic sources of *the subtype systematic*, which we propose to classify as so-called "non-lexical" – publications whose main subject of description is typically more complex language units and their characteristics – phrases, idioms, grammatical, word formation characteristics. (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 80). Here, we distinguish grammatical, discursive, and syntactical dictionaries, dictionaries of expressiveness means (phraseological, dictionaries of comparisons, paraphrases, winged words and expressions, paremias).

The second subtype of linguistic/philological lexicographic sources is *reference sources*, which include two main classes: *scientific-reference* and *practical-reference* (*normalizing*) *sources.* The main types of scientific-reference sources are reverse (inversion), frequency, etymological, and complex dictionaries.

As for practical reference, or normalizing (a definition by L. I. Skvortsov) sources, they record oral and written speech norms to which the speaker can refer for specific information (Lukyanova 1996, p. 41). The main types of such sources are *dictionaries of lexical and grammatical difficulties (correctness), abbreviations, orthologic (orthoepic and orthographic), and complex dictionaries.*

Concluding the above, we note that contemporary lexicography continues to enrich its base with various sources and directories, each of which occupies its place in the developed typological classification, as well as allows establishing they are: *type → subtype → class → kind → variety* according to 5 main criteria, among which: 1) the object of lexicographic description; 2) the method of lexicon organization; 3) the quantitative composition of the lexicographic source and the volume of lexicographic information; 4) the method of presenting the lexical meaning of a word; 5) the functions, purposes, designation, and parameters of the description of the lexicographic unit.

2.2   Etymological Dictionaries within the General Taxonomy of Lexicographic Sources

Etymological dictionaries find their place in two studies: 1) *synchronic lexicography*, which focuses on the synchronous cross-section of language, that is, on the lexicographic interpretation of units, facts, phenomena of language of a particular period; this includes, besides theoretical research, examples of dictionary processing both of units of the contemporary language and the language of a particular historical period in synchrony (Demska 2009, p. 19); 2) *diachronic lexicography*, which focuses on the study of the lexical-phraseological level of language, i.e., it is interested in questions of the birth of a word and its existence in the language, changes in its meaning, pronunciation, spelling, grammatical forms, as well as its replacement by other words or, conversely, preservation without changes (Demska 2009, p. 20). In this context, E. Shimchuk emphasizes that "if synchronic dictionaries provide a portrait of a word or material for its portrait, then diachronic ones should present its "biography", i.e., show its origins and what semantic, phonetic, and grammatical transformations have occurred with the word during its existence" (Shimchuk 2003, p. 153). Therefore, according to O. M. Demska, the competence of diachronic lexicography includes a range of problems related to the history of language, its units, facts, and phenomena, where, in addition to intralingual aspects, there are also extralingual factors – the history of the language and the history of the people who speak the language, the development of their culture, their contacts with other peoples, folklore, traditions (Demska 2009, p. 20).

Depending on the five criteria in the classification presented in 2.1 of this chapter, we will attempt to characterize and determine the place of etymological dictionaries in the general typological class-type organization of lexicographic sources.

The first criterion is *the object of dictionary description.* Today, human language for its speakers is, first and foremost, primarily a language of words (Morkovkin 1987, p. 33). This is evident as contemporary linguistic science is directed towards the study of various components of the word, which "acts not only as the main unit of the dictionary composition but also as the central pivotal unit of language" (Smyrnitsky 1952, p. 183), or, in the words of F. de Saussure, "as something central in the mechanism of language" (Saussure 1977, p. 143). Moreover, L. Skoryk wrote on this topic: "In the beginning was the Word… The Bible starts not without reason with these words. It is not easy to determine the age of the first words, as they appeared simultaneously with the formation of human consciousness and served to express thoughts. Over millennia, concepts, things, and phenomena that needed to be named appeared and disappeared, and

some of them we adopted from neighbors already with ready names, sharing some with other peoples ourselves. These processes in languages (not only in Ukrainian but in all) occurred continuously" (Skoryk).

Etymological dictionaries occupy their place among lexicographic sources of the linguistic/philological type (Kotelova 1976, p. 30), as the subject of explanation in such editions remains the word as the central functional-structural unit of language, constituting a sound or complex of sounds and, characterized by independence and reproducibility, serves as the building material for phrases and sentences (Plyushch 2000, p. 117).

The second criterion is *the method of lexicon organization.* The macrostructure of etymological dictionaries, i.e., the main list of words, or the dictionary itself, is built on alphabetical: "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" in 2 volumes (edited by E. Klein); "The Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology" (edited by R. K. Barnhart) and others, nest: "Этимологический словарь русского языка" by A. G. Preobrazhensky is built on the nesting principle and others, or alphabetical-nest: "Etymological Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language" in 7 volumes (edited by O. S. Melnychuk) principles.

The third criterion is *the etymological dictionary's quantitative composition and the volume of its lexicographic information.* Etymological dictionaries have various quantitative compositions and volumes of lexicographic information: 1) large: "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" in 2 volumes (edited by E. Klein); "An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English" (edited by E. Weekley and others); "Etymological Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language" in 7 volumes (edited by O. S. Melnychuk); 2) medium: "Chambers Dictionary of Etymology"; 3) small/short (pocket): "A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English" (edited by E. Partridge); "A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" (edited by W. W. Skeat). It should be noted that etymological sources can also be single-volume: "A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English" (edited by E. Partridge); two-volume: "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" in 2 volumes (edited by E. Klein); and multi-volume: "Etymological Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language" in 7 volumes (edited by O. S. Melnychuk).

The fourth criterion is *presenting lexicographic (etymological) information about the headword.* Among etymological dictionaries, researchers distinguish the following classes: 1) *monolingual* (if the headword is described using the same language as it) (Dubichinsky 2008; Romenskaya, 1978; Stupin, 1985; Shcherba 1974): "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" in 2 volumes (edited by E. Klein); "Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology" (edited by C. T. Onions, G. W. S. Friedrichsen, R. W. Burchfield); "An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" (edited by W. W. Skeat); "A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English" (edited by E. Partridge);

"Etymological Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language" in 7 volumes (edited by O. S. Melnychuk); 2) *bilingual* (when the authors of the source applied only two languages) (Dubichinsky 2008; Romenskaya, 1978; Stupin, 1985; Shcherba 1974): "Historical-Etymological Dictionary of the Modern English Language" (chief editor M. M. Makovsky).

The fifth criterion is *the functions, purposes, designation of the etymological dictionary, and parameters of the description of the register unit.* As unique linguistic reference systems, etymological dictionaries contain information about the genetic connections (etymology) of words of a specific language or group of related languages (Ostapova 2009, p. 40). The most significant advantage of such editions is the effectiveness of searching for necessary information about the origin of a word, which does not exclude the possibility of extracting conceptual and linguistic information "hidden", "or encrypted" in these lexicographic versions. This is valid not only for ordinary users (for obtaining reference information) but also for linguists (for further research) (Bolshakov 2009; Grigorovich 2006; Shirokov 2005). Meanwhile, etymological dictionaries remain lexical systems (predominantly explanatory), as well as reference (scientific-reference) sources, because, according to O. S. Ostapova, today, etymological dictionaries are used not only as reference publications for a wide range of users but also as a tool for further etymological research (Ostapova 2009, p. 40).

Concluding the above, we note that according to the five criteria, etymological dictionaries are considered for 1) the object of dictionary description – linguistic/philological type; 2) the method of lexicon organization – alphabetical, nest, and alphabetical-nest principles; 3) the quantitative composition of the etymological source and the volume of lexicographic information – large, medium, small, or single-/two-/multi-volume; 4) the method of presenting lexicographic information about the headword – mono- and bilingual; 5) the functions, purposes, designation of the etymological source, and parameters of the description of the register unit – lexical systematic (explanatory) and reference (scientific-reference).

2.3   Vectors of Description in Etymological Dictionaries: Aspects, Methods, and Techniques

Throughout the history of etymology as a science, its goals have repeatedly changed, and the vectors of description in etymological dictionaries have undergone even more significant changes in aspects, methods, and techniques. One of the critical problems in linguistics remains the issue of methodology. The compilation of lexicographic sources is based on a tradition established on the

principles of the works of P. N. Denisov (Denisov 1988), L. P. Stupin (Stupin 1985), L. V. Shcherba (Shcherba 1974), R. R. K. Hartmann (Hartmann 1995), H. E. Wiegand (Wiegand 1983), L. Zgusta (Zgusta 1992/93), among others. Of particular interest are works dedicated to studying the stages of constructing dictionary entries in etymological sources, implementing the latest methods and techniques of their analysis, and applying classical (traditional) ones.

The most effective methods and techniques for presenting scientific results were identified in the dissertation research of O. V. Korobeynikova, "Principles of Constructing English Explanatory-Encyclopedic Dictionaries: Based on the Dictionaries of Quotations and Dictionaries of Writers' Language" (Korobeynikova 2007), where the following was observed: *the method of lexicographical analysis* developed by the foreign school of lexicography (O. M. Karpova (Karpova 2000, 2004, 2010), L. P. Stupin (Stupin 1985)) which has been widely used in the works of I. O. Vorontsova (Vorontsova 2004), A. V. Goroshchuk (Goroshchuk 2008), S. V. Lebedeva (Lebedeva 2005), M. V. Lutseva (Lutseva 2008), S. A. Manik (Manik 2001), N. V. Shchetchnikova (Shchetchnikova 1988), T. O. Taganova (Taganova 2003), and others; *the descriptive method*; *the comparative-historical method*, known in lexicographic practice also as *dictionary criticism* (R. R. K. Hartmann (Hartmann 1995)).

The research of dictionary entries in CEDEL relies on one of the oldest and most widespread general scientific methods – the descriptive method, the essence of which lies in the systematic inventory of language units and the explanation of the peculiarities of their structure and functioning at a particular stage of the development of the respective language, i. e., in synchrony, consisting of the following consecutive stages: 1) identification of units of analysis (phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, constructions); 2) segmentation of identified units (secondary segmentation): division of a sentence into phrases, phrases into word forms, word forms into morphemes, morphemes into phonemes, phonemes into differential features; 3) classification and interpretation of identified units. It is noted that this method has great practical significance, linking linguistics to societal needs. Based on it, the descriptive grammar of various languages, explanatory, orthographic, orthoepic, and other normative dictionaries, have been created (Kochergan 2001, p. 11).

The descriptive method is applied using techniques of external and internal interpretation (Kochergan 2006, p. 15). Among *the techniques of external interpretation*, the following are distinguished: *the logical-psychological technique*, applied in studying the connection between the content of linguistic units and categories with units of thinking (the correlation between a sentence and judgment, the deep semantic structure of a sentence); *the inter-level interpretation technique* consists in using units of one level as a means of linguistic analysis of units of another level (Ibid.). However, techniques of internal interpretation are

various ways of studying linguistic phenomena based on their systemic paradigmatic and syntagmatic connections, that is, as F. de Saussure expressed, studying language in itself and for itself (cited in Zagorijchuk 2012).

The main methods for studying paradigmatic relations in the lexicon can be divided into two groups: 1) methods based on the analysis of dictionaries (dictionary definitions) and 2) methods based on text analysis (Levitsky 2006, p. 235–237). The first method, best represented in the work of B. O. Plotnikov, "Distributive-statistical analysis of lexical meanings", rightly states that "if the meaning of a lexeme of the studied group is described using another lexeme belonging to this same group, then there is a semantic connection between these lexemes" (Plotnikov 1979, p. 47).

The comparative-historical method is a system of scientific research techniques applied in studying related languages to reconstruct the historical picture of these languages to reveal the regularities of their development, starting from the proto-language (Korolyova 2013, p. 13).

A. V. Korolyova identifies <u>three main stages in the comparison procedure</u>: 1) selection of linguistic material to be compared; 2) the actual comparison, aimed at identifying (necessarily) relatedness; 3) reconstruction of proto-language forms (Korolyova 2013b, p. 153). T. V. Bulygina notes that in this case, "the internal form of the word acts as a center of etymological memory, preserving the original conceptual representation of the object, serves as an indicator of the subsequent semantic development of the word, paving the way for future semantic associations that formulate different meanings" (Bulygina 1997, p. 247), and as a result, the most essential techniques in the comparison procedure remain internal and external reconstruction of proto-language states (Korolyova 2013a, p. 11), as well as etymological analysis.

The technique of internal reconstruction involves reconstructing an older form by comparing its chronologically different recordings within one language. The fundamental postulate of internal reconstruction methodology (technique) is the coexistence in a synchronically attested system of phenomena reflecting different stages of the language's history. Its technique involves identifying relative archaisms among genetically comparable language elements and presenting the latter as original archetypes (Korolyova 2013a, p. 11).

The methodology of external reconstruction is reduced to comparing homogeneous material of different related languages to derive a specific archetype based on regularities. Its essence lies in that, by establishing the regularities of the development of related languages, it is possible to reconstruct the linguistic picture of the world in a period not recorded by written monuments (Korolyova 2013a, p. 11–13).

The comparative-historical method is the basis for conducting an etymological analysis of words or morphemes, through which their origin, original meaning,

initial phonetic form (proto-form), and history of development are determined. The first stage of the etymological analysis of a word is to determine whether it is an inherited word in this language or borrowed from another language. Inherited words of this language, after identifying their etymological and word-formation connections with other words of the same language, are compared, taking into account their semantics and possible sound laws in their previous development, with corresponding words of other closely related languages. Based on such comparison, their sound structure and semantics in the proto-language are reconstructed. Then, equivalents of the Proto-Slavic form in other Indo-European languages are sought, and as a result of their comparison, taking into account the semantics of these equivalents in different languages, the sound composition and semantics of the common predecessor of the compared related words in the Indo-European proto-language are reconstructed (Korolyova 2013a, p. 13).

The comparative-historical method, known in lexicographic practice also as dictionary criticism (R. R. K. Hartmann), has allowed tracing the genetic foundations of the phonetic, morphemic, and partly lexical composition of the English language, revealing specific internal laws of their development, clarifying the original meaning of nominations, reconstructing cultural etymons, and establishing data of the oldest epochs of ethnic history represented in dictionary entries of etymological sources of the English language, as, according to T. S. Semegin, it is in etymology that contains a unique prototype of the corresponding headword, the history of its emergence (Semegin 2011, p. 52).

The application of the comparative-historical method in combination with techniques of internal/external reconstruction, relative chronology, and etymological analysis of headwords, based on diachrony – a scientific approach that considers language in terms of temporal changes of individual components of the linguistic structure or the language as a whole (Luchik 2013, p. 356), allows to: 1) clarify the features that determined the original form of etymons objectifying linguistic units in the English and Ukrainian languages; 2) identify archetypes (prototypes of the collective unconscious) that serve as a motivational core for the formation and development of consciousness; 3) trace the modification of the structure of etymons within the researched cultural-historical epoch; 4) establish not the exact time of appearance of linguistic phenomena, but only the sequence of these phenomena in time.

The primary purpose of applying the comparative-typological method is to identify common regularities and differences in the systemic-structural organization of elements (sections and subsections) in two zones of dictionary entries: the headword field and the etymology field in etymological sources of the English and Ukrainian languages.

A. V. Korolyova correctly notes that the comparison procedure is carried out sequentially in three stages: 1) establishing the basis for comparison (tertium

comparationis), 2) comparative interpretation, and 3) typological character-ization (establishing typical regularities and differences) (Korolyova 2013b, p. 154).

Establishing *tertium comparationis* involves selecting a particular property or feature of a linguistic phenomenon – phonetic, grammatical, lexical, semantic – as a standard for comparison. In the study, two zones of dictionary entries were chosen as tertium comparationis: the headword field and the etymology field (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57), which allowed tracing the principles of their con-struction and the degree of their consistent adherence by the author and com-pilers in the etymological dictionary of the English language. A. V. Korolyova emphasizes that if the second stage of comparative interpretation is carried out through systematic analysis (description) of the compared phenomena in each language separately, and then the obtained results are compared, then the last stage of comparison – *typological characterization* – is aimed at identifying atypical and typical features of the analyzed phenomenon, establishing its place in the developed classification (Korolyova 2013a, p. 12).

The application of comparative interpretation procedures and typological characterization allowed comparison of the obtained results based on a com-prehensive analysis of two zones of dictionary entries: the headword field and the etymology field (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57) in etymological dictionaries of the English language, as well as identifying atypical and typical features in their construction. It is agreed with A. V. Korolyova that in modern research in comparative-historical and typological linguistics, both procedures – compar-ison, and juxtaposition – must necessarily be performed, at least, even if only their elements are used (Korolyova 2013b, p. 154).

The structural method was applied to study the structures of dictionary entries in etymological sources of the English language. The structural method, partic-ularly its component analysis combined with the method of analyzing dictionary definitions and the method of chain research of several dictionary definitions, allowed verifying the semantic development of register units in a synchronic/ diachronic section in etymological dictionaries of the English language. With the help of distributive analysis, the system of phonemes and morphemes of the English language will be established, and the meanings of polysemic words, as well as paradigmatic relations between headwords and their meanings based on such lexical connections as polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy.

2.4 Comprehensive Methodology for Identifying Cognitive-Synergetic Principles to Constructing Microstructures in Etymological Dictionaries

2.4.1 Compositional Levels of A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

A successful attempt at compiling an etymological dictionary of the English language is "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language", edited by E. Klein (vol. 1–2, 1966–1967) (CEDEL 1966–1967), published by ELSEVIER PUBLISHING COMPANY – one of the four largest publishing houses in the world.

CEDEL is a dictionary that provides fundamental information about the etymology (i.e., the origin and genetic connections) as well as phonetic and semantic changes of individual words and morphemes of the modern English language. The primary objectives of CEDEL can be formulated based on three of its general characteristics: 1) to present not merely the history of headwords but to unveil their evolution; 2) to characterize the history of human civilization and culture as demonstrated by the etymological information/hypotheses of headwords presented in dictionary entries; 3) to trace the connection with the humanities and natural sciences, that is, to address the history/etymology of scientific and technical terms, enabling the dictionary user to acquaint themselves with data from various spheres of the humanities and natural sciences (CEDEL, vol. 1, 1966, p. X).

Let us characterize the mega-, macro-, and microstructures of CEDEL as its fundamental compositional components.

The megastructure of CEDEL consists of 1) an introductory part (Zagraevskaya 2013, p. 731), which includes a preface; an introduction; the rules for the transliteration of Hebrew and Aramaic employed in this dictionary; the rules for the transliteration of Arabic employed in this dictionary; abbreviations of frequently referred to books and journals; a list of other consulted literature; general abbreviations and their explanations; a list of symbols used in this dictionary; 2) the corpus of the dictionary, organizing its macrostructure (the main list of words, i.e., the dictionary itself), where the dictionary entries constitute the microstructure of the dictionary (Ibid., p. 731). Let us further examine the macro- and microstructures of CEDEL.

The macrostructure of CEDEL encompasses **46,119** register units, including both independent (full-valued) parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, and service (incomplete) parts of speech like prepositions, conjunctions, and particles. The publication's register includes

interjections, prefixes, suffixes, and personal and mythological names (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. X).

The mentioned register units are divided into:

1. *Hybrid words* (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. XII) – lexical units formed by combining two or more elements from different languages; these register units are characterized in dictionary entries by corresponding phrases provided in the zone of etymology, such as "A blend of (…)"; "A hybrid coined fr. (…)". E. Klein says these words are predominantly scientific terms (ibid., vol. 1, 1966, p. XII).

2. *Indigenous*, or *native*, *words* are Anglo-Saxon words brought from the continent in the 5th century by Germanic tribes – the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. K. O. Voynova, citing H. Yu. Knyazeva, asserts that these words have been used for more than a millennium and are not found in languages other than English (cited by: Voynova 1996, p. 43). However, W. Skeat refutes this, explaining that many words, like father, mother, sister, brother, kill, and flow, have parallel forms in almost all Indo-European languages and thus should also be considered native. For example, the word father does not "derive" from the Sanskrit pitā any more than the Sanskrit pitā from the English father (cited by Rayevskaya 1957, p. 25).

3. Words borrowed into the English language from any other language (loan translations) (CEDEL, vol. 1, 1966, p. XII) are included in the CEDEL register only if they have become elements of the English language lexicon.

Furthermore, all presented register units are distributed into three groups: 1) dictionary entries providing etymological characteristics of headwords with documentation of reconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms); 2) dictionary entries providing etymological characteristics of headwords without documentation of reconstructed forms; 3) dictionary entries without etymological elucidation of headwords, generally assessed as "uncertain" (of imitative origin / of uncertain origin / of unknown origin).

The actual microstructures of CEDEL are directly organize information within two zones of dictionary entries: *the zone of headword* and *the zone of etymology*. Regardless of the nature of the illuminated headword in CEDEL, the construction of dictionary entries in this source has a uniform structure: one variant.

Dictionary entries of headwords, whose etymological characteristics are fully illuminated in one entry, or those that are in an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word under which a profound etymological characterization, joint to both (or several) such headwords, is presented, are constructed from the following parts: a) the headword; b) semanticization of the headword; the semantic evolution of the headword in a synchronic cross-section; c) grammatical and/or stylistic information (special notes/dictionary remarks); d) illustrations; e) the etymological character of the headword; f) historical note on the headword; g) genetically related and/or etymologically associated coun-

terparts in the Indo-European language family; h) the semantic evolution of the headword in a diachronic cross-section; i) the etymon of the headword; j) the Indo-European root or joint base; k) derivatives of the headword; l) bibliography of the most critical literature on the etymology of the respective word, if it has not already been provided in the previous part of the entry.

Among the dictionary entries, the construction of whose structures occur according to this variant is presented:

1. Words that are in an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – W⇔ERAN/BW), among which are distinguished: a) hybrid words in etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – HW⇔ERAN/BW); b) native words in etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – NW⇔ERAN/BW); c) words borrowed into the English language from any other language in etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW).

Words that are not in an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – W⇎ERAN/BW), among which are distinguished: a) hybrid words not in an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – HW⇎ERAN/BW); b) native words not in etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – NW⇎ERAN/BW); c) words borrowed into the English language from any other language not in etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (from now on – WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW).

Borrowed register units WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW and WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW are distributed into five linguistic families from which they were borrowed: a) the Indo-European linguistic family, which includes the Indian, Slavic, Baltic, Germanic, Romance, and Celtic language groups, as well as the Greek language; b) the Semito-Hamitic linguistic family; c) the Austronesian family; d) the Turkic family; e) a separate family (the Japanese language).

It is noted that at the end of the dictionary entries HW⇔ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW, and WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, as a rule, stand the remarks "See" ("refer to") and "Cp." – "compare", through which a reference is made to the corresponding native/borrowed word, from which, in turn, there may be a reverse reference to this or another word using these markings.

2.4.2   Stages of Identifying Cognitive-Synergetic Princliples to Constructing Microstructures in A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

The comprehensive methodology for identifying cognitive-synergetic princliples to constructing microstructures in CEDEL consists of three sequential stages:

The first stage of the study applied the procedure of quantitative counts to determine the overall headwords in CEDEL, as well as the number of units under each letter. All headwords were distributed by parts of speech (including interjections, prefixes, suffixes) and classified into three main thematic groups: 1) dictionary entries providing an etymological characterization with the fixation of reconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms); 2) dictionary entries providing an etymological characterization without fixation of reconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms); 3) dictionary entries without etymological illumination, with a general assessment of "unclear". The comparative-historical method, known in lexicographic practice as dictionary criticism (R. R. K. Hartmann), combined with techniques of external/internal reconstruction, relative chronology, and etymological analysis, was employed to establish the origin of headwords, their original meaning, initial phonetic structuring (proto-forms), historical and chronological development. Then, dictionary entries from different thematic groups were selected for further study using the method of complete sampling.

The second stage involved analyzing the structures of dictionary entries, employing the structural method, which entails a component analysis technique to establish the core-periphery organization of two fields of dictionary entries: the headword field and the etymology field, among which is non-linear, i.e., paradigmatic relations, were observed. In the headword field zone, the method of analyzing dictionary definitions and the method of chain investigation of several dictionary definitions were applied to verify the semanticization of headwords or register units. The distributive analysis helped establish the system of phonemes and morphemes in English and Ukrainian languages in etymological sources, the meanings of polysemic words, as well as the paradigmatic relations between headwords and their meanings based on such lexical connections as polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy. Additionally, an analysis of direct components was conducted, allowing the dissection of the dictionary entry, specifically its two zones, the headword field and the etymology field, to establish the principles adhered to by the compilers in their construction.

The third stage, utilizing the comparative-typological method, revealed common regularities and differences in the systemic-structural organization of the main compositional components of two zones of dictionary entries; two zones of dictionary entries were chosen as tertium comparationis: the zone of

headword and the zone of etymology (S. O. Vyvenko), enabling the tracing of their construction principles and the degree of their consistent adherence by the author and compilers in each of the etymological dictionary of the English language. The employment of comparative interpretation procedures and typological characterization helped compare the obtained results based on a comprehensive analysis of two zones of dictionary entries: the zone of headword and the zone of etymology (S. O. Vyvenko) in etymological dictionary of the English language, and also identify atypical and typical features in their construction.

Conclusions to Chapter 2

Etymological sources find their place in studies of synchronic and diachronic lexicography, allowing their placement in the general typological class-and-type organization of lexicographic sources and characterization based on 1) the object of dictionary description – linguistic/philological type; 2) method of lexical organization – alphabetical, nest, and alphabetical-nest principles; 3) the quantitative composition of the etymological source and the volume of lexicographical information – large, medium, small, or single-/multi-volume; 4) method of presenting lexicographical information about the headword – monolingual and bilingual; 5) functions, goals, purpose of the etymological source, and parameters of register unit description – lexical systemic (explanatory) and reference (scientific-reference).

The vectors of description of two zones of dictionary entries, the zone of headword and the zone of etymology, presented in etymological dictionaries of the English language, are oriented towards two main aspects: synchronic, diachronic, or comparative-historical. The comprehensive methodology for analyzing etymological sources is based on the application of unique linguistic methods: the comparative-historical method with techniques of external/internal reconstruction, relative chronology, and etymological analysis; the structural method, involving component analysis methodology, method of analyzing dictionary definitions, and method of chain investigation of several dictionary definitions, distributive analysis, and analysis of direct components; the comparative-typological method, with two zones of dictionary entries chosen as *tertium comparationis:* the zone of headword and the zone of etymology, enabling the tracing of their construction principles and the degree of their consistent adherence by the author and compilers in CEDEL; procedures of comparative interpretation and typological characterization; procedures of quantitative counts; thematic group technique; complete sampling technique.

Chapter 3. Linguocognitive-Synergetic Principles to Constructing Microstructures in a Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

3.1 *Traditional Principles* to Constructing Microstructures in A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

3.1.1 Principle of Succession in Etymological Dictionaries

The lexicographic principle is observed in **the inheritance (sequence) of etymological dictionaries** (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 50) or their **traditionality** (Denisov 1980, p. 207), since CEDEL is compiled mainly on traditional scientific foundations, accepted in other contemporary etymological dictionaries of Indo-European languages (ESUM 1982, vol. 1, p. 9), as evidenced by V. V. Dubichinsky: "the description of certain dictionary material always relies on lexicographic traditions" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 50). This principle effectively represents all essential features of headwords for their further correct usage in language, expressions, and context against the background of the corresponding paradigmatic, syntagmatic, derivative, and other properties (Denisov 1980, p. 207). The principles mentioned above have become foundational in the construction of dictionary entries, particularly in presenting the form of material presentation, wherein the zone of headword are provided: 1) special notes/dictionary remarks (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 59–60); 2) comments/clarifications; 3) illustrative material; 4) formulas; 5) signs/symbols; 6) numbers; in the zone of etymology: 1) special notes/dictionary remarks (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 59–60); 2) comments/clarifications; 3) illustrative material; 4) abbreviations. For example:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW):
The zone of headword: 1) remarks (a) *grammatical:* **acetyl**, n.; **acrid**, adj.; **acronym**, n.; **besiclometer**, n.; **chonolith**, n.; **deontology**, n., where "adj." – "adjective", "n." – "noun"; (b) *lexical:* **acetyl**, n., the radical of acetic acid, CH_3CO (*chem.*), де "chem." – "chemical"; **chonolith**, n., a mess of igneous rock (*geol.*),

where "geol." – "geological"; 2) <u>illustrative material</u>: **acronym**, n., a word formed from the first letters of a series of words, as *UNO*, from *U*nited *N*ations *O*rganization; 3) <u>formulas</u>: **acetyl**, n., the radical of acetic acid, CH_3CO (*chem.*).

 The zone of etymology: 1) <u>remarks</u>: *grammatical:* **acrid** – A blend of L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*); *acrid-ity*, n., *acrid-ly*, adv. *acrid-ness*, n.; **besiclometer** – A hybrid coined fr. F. *besicles* (pl.), "spectacles"; 2) <u>comments/clarifications</u>: **deontology** – Coined by the English philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832) in 1826 fr. Gr. δέον, gen. δέοντος, "that which is needful", neut. pres. part. of δεῖ, "it is necessary, it behoves one", and -λογίᾱ, fr. λόγος, "one who speaks (in a certain manner); one who deals (with a certain topic)"; 3) <u>abbreviations</u>: they are observed in all dictionary entries, e. g., "fr." – "from", "prec." – "preceding", "suff." – "suffix", "rel." – "relative; related", "orig." – "original, originally", "dial." – "dialect, dialectal", "prob." – "probably", "cogn." – "cognate".

II. NW (NW ⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW):
<u>The zone of headword</u>: <u>remarks</u>: *grammatical:* **anent**, prep.; **calends, kalends**, n. pl.; **calf**, n.; **Cedric**, masc. PN.; **enough**, adj.; **gang**, n.; **may**, auxil. v.; **pan**, n.; **penny**, n., where "adj." – "adjective", "auxil." – "auxiliary", "masc." – "masculine", "n." – "noun", "pl." – "plural", "PN" – "Personal Name", "prep." – "preposition", "v." – "verb".

 The zone of etymology: 1) <u>remarks</u>: (a) *comparing:* cp. words there referred to, where "cp." – "compare"; (b) *grammatical:* **calf** – OHG. *kilbur* (neut.), *kilburra* (fem.), where "fem." – "feminine", "neut." – "neuter"; **enough** – *enough*, n. and adv.; для **gang** – *gang-er*, n.; **may** – ME. *mai, mei*, fr. OE. *mæg*, "I am able" (inf. *magan*, "to be able"); 2) <u>comments/clarifications</u>: **anent** – Cp. OHG. (MHG., G.); **calends, kalends** – Umbr. *kařetu, kařitu, carsitu* (= L. *calātō*), "thou shalt (or he shall) call", and cogn. with Gr. χαλέω, "I call", χέλαδος, "noise, din", χέλαρύξειν, "to rush, purl", χέλωρ (Hesychius); 3) <u>illustrative material</u>: **Cedric** – "Cedric the Saxon" is one of the characters in Ivanhoe; 4) <u>abbreviations</u>: they are observed in all dictionary entries, e. g., "cogn." – "cognate", "ff." – "following", "fr." – "from", "lit." – "literal, literally", "orig." – "original, originally", "perh." – "perhaps", "prob." – "probably", "rel." – "relative; related", "ult." – "ultimate, ultimately".

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW):
<u>The zone of headword</u>: 1) <u>remarks</u>: (a) *grammatical:* **basalt**, n.; **bundook**, n.; **caecum**, n.; **Calliope**, n.; **Carmelite**, n. and adj.; **Endymion**, n.; **fiasco**, n.; **fiber, fibre**, n.; **inter**, prep.; **-ise**, suff.; **pro-**, pref.; **Prometheus**, n.; **prosbul**, n.; **restaurant**, n., where "adj." – "adjective", "n." – "noun", "pref." – "prefix", "prep." – "preposition", "suff." – "suffix"; (b) *lexical:* **caecum**, n., the blind gut (*anat.*), where "anat." – "anatomy"; 2) <u>illustrative material</u>: **inter**, prep., among, between, occurring in Latin phrases occasionally used in English, as *inter alia*, "among

other things"; 3) signs/symbols: **diesis**, n., (…) the sign sharp (#) (*music*); 4) <u>numbers</u>: **diesis**, n., (…) the difference between a major and a minor semitone (ratio 125:128).

The zone of etymology: 1) <u>remarks</u>: (a) ***comparing:*** **fiber**, **fibre** – *fibril* (q.v.), *fibrilla* (q.v.), *fibrin* (q.v.), *fibro-*, combining form, *fibroid* (q.v.), *fibroin* (q.v.), n., *fibroma* (q.v.), *fibrosis* (q.v.), where "q.v." – "quod vide" (L., "which see"), "cp." – "compare" (in all dictionary entries); **basalt** – s.v. *basanitēs*, де "s.v." – "sub voce (= under the word)"; (b) ***grammatical:*** **basalt** – (…), to which the suff. -ῐ́της was added (see subst. suff. -**ite**), where "subst. suff." – "substantive suffix"; **inter** – Arm. *ĕnder-kʻ* (pl.), "intestines", Gk. ἔντερα (pl.), "intestines", ON. *iðrar* (pl.), де "pl." – "plural"; 2) <u>comments/clarifications</u>: **basalt** – L. *basaltēs*, explained by most lexicographers as a word of African origin. (This explanation is based on Pliny, Historia 36, 58). L. *basanitēs* (*lapis*) comes fr. Gk. βασανῐ́της (λίθος). I tentatively suggest that βασανῐ́της derives fr. Βασάν, "Bashan" (Βασάν is the transliteration of Heb. *Bāshā́n* in the LXX), to which the suff. -ῐ́της was added (see subst. suff. -**ite**); 3) <u>abbreviations</u>: they are observed in all dictionary entries, e. g., "e. g." – "exempli gratia (for example)", "fr." – "from", "lit." – "literal, literally", "rel." – "relative; related", "orig." – "original, originally", "p." – "page", "perh." – "perhaps", "prob." – "probably", "cogn." – "cognate", "var." – "variant"; 4) <u>illustrative material</u>: **restaurant** – F. – Boulanger opened the first restaurant in Paris (Rue des Poulies) in 1765 and wrote over the entrance the Latin words *Venite ad me omnes qui stomach laboratis et ego vos restaurabo* ("Come to me ye all that suffer from stomach and I will restore you").

In the intricate landscape of lexicography, remarks, clarifications, illustrative material, and other annotations within the headword and etymology zones of dictionary entries play pivotal roles. They function as mere navigational tools and comprehensive guides that enrich the user's linguistic comprehension and historical insight into words. Through these annotations, a dictionary transcends from a simple word repository to a detailed map of linguistic evolution and usage contexts.

Grammatical remarks, indicating parts of speech like "n." for nouns and "adj." for adjectives, are crucial for immediate identification and proper usage of words in speech and writing. This clarity is essential, especially for language learners, as it directly influences the accuracy of communication. Lexical remarks go a step further by providing depth, such as highlighting the field-specific usage of a term (e. g., "chem." for chemical) and tailoring the dictionary to serve general language users and specialists in various fields. These annotations bridge the gap between general vocabulary and the specialized lexicon of disciplines like chemistry or geology, illustrating the multifaceted nature of words.

Illustrative examples and etymological comments illuminate words' practical application and origin, respectively. Illustrative material enables users to grasp nuanced meanings and apply words correctly in diverse contexts by showcasing how a term is used in context. For instance, understanding "acronym" through the example of "UNO" from the United Nations Organization makes the concept immediately accessible and memorable.

Etymological remarks reveal words' historical layers and transformations, enriching the user's linguistic awareness. Knowing that "deontology" was coined by J. Bentham from Greek roots adds a dimension of historical depth and cultural context, connecting language learning with broader educational goals.

The systematic use of abbreviations and symbols is a shorthand that maintains the dictionary's conciseness without sacrificing clarity. This economy of expression ensures that extensive information is conveyed efficiently, making the dictionary more user-friendly while fostering a deeper understanding of linguistic structures and historical nuances.

This structured approach to presenting information, from grammatical roles to lexical fields and illustrative examples to etymological origins, reflects a hierarchical knowledge organization. It mirrors the complexity of language itself, where words function at multiple levels—from their immediate grammatical roles to their places within the web of cultural and historical narratives.

The careful construction of dictionary entries, marked by detailed remarks, clarifications, and illustrative material, showcases the lexicographer's artistry and the dictionary's role as an educational tool. These elements ensure that users find the definitions they seek and gain insights into the usage, origins, and evolution of words. In doing so, dictionaries act as bridges connecting past and present, theory and practice, and the general with the specific, thereby enriching our engagement with language and its endless complexities.

3.1.2   Alphabetical and/or Nesting Principles of Information Organization in Dictionary Entries

The traditional alphabetical principle (Apazhev 2005, pp. 32–33; Dubichinsky 2008, pp. 69–71; Morkovkin 1994, pp. 13–23; Romenskaya 1978, pp. 181–188; Stupin 1985, pp. 12–18; Shcherba 1974, pp. 265–304) is manifested in the zone of etymology, where compilers document derivatives of headwords (Derivatives), that is, word-formation and phonetic variants of headwords, all derivatives from them, as well as derivatives from their variants.

Analyzing the derivatives in these dictionary entries offers a fascinating glimpse into how words in the English language evolve and diversify over time. Derivatives, formed by adding prefixes, suffixes, or both to a base word, expand

the lexicon, allowing for the expression of nuanced meanings, variations in grammatical function, and the creation of entirely new concepts related to the original term. Let us delve into each example to explore the significance of derivatives in linguistic expansion and nuance.

For example, the derivatives of headwords (Derivatives), i.e., word-formation and phonetic variants of headwords, all derivatives from them, as well as derivatives from their variants:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – *acrid-ity*, n., *acrid-ly*, adv., *acrid-ness*, n.; **deontology** – *deontology-ical*, adj., *deontology-ist*, n.

Acrid derivatives (*acrid-ity, acrid-ly, acrid-ness*) show how the base adjective can transform into a noun expressing a state or quality (*-ity*), an adverb indicating manner (*-ly*), and another noun form emphasizing a condition or state (*-ness*). These derivatives illustrate how the core concept of a pungent taste or smell extends into abstract nouns and adverbs, enriching the language by providing specific tools for detailed expression.

Deontology derivatives (*deontology-ical, deontology-ist*) reveal an expansion from a philosophical concept into an adjective describing something related to or characteristic of deontology (*-ical*) and a noun for someone who practices or adheres to deontology (*-ist*). This branching out demonstrates how a specialized term can generate its lexicon within a specific discourse, in this case, ethical philosophy.

II. NW (NW⇔ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): enough – *enough*, n. and adv.; **gang** – *gang-er*, n.; **pan** – *pan*, tr. and intr. v., *pan-ful*, adj., *pan-er*, n., *pan-ery*, n.

Enough as a noun and adverb remain unchanged, indicating a unique case where the base form serves dual grammatical functions without requiring derivative forms to distinguish them. This showcases the flexibility and efficiency of English in expressing concepts without always requiring morphological changes.

Gang derivative (*gang-er*) represents a personification or agent form (*-er*), turning the collective noun into a term for an individual gang member. This creates a specific term for an individual within a collective entity, highlighting the language's capacity to zoom in from a group to its constituents.

Pan derivatives (*pan-ful, pan-er, pan-ery*) extend the meaning from a simple noun to an adjective expressing fullness (*-ful*), a noun for someone who pans (*-er*), and a noun denoting a place or collection related to the act of panning (*-ery*). This demonstrates how a simple word can develop a family of related terms, enriching the language with specific expressions for various related concepts and actors.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): fiber, fibre – *fibril* (q.v.), *fibrilla* (q.v.), *fibrin* (q.v.), *fibro-*, combining form, *fibroid* (q.v.), *fibroin* (q.v.), n., *fibroma* (q.v.), *fibrosis* (q.v.), *fibr-ous*, adj., *fibr-ous-ly*, adv., *fibrous-ness*, n.

The **fiber, fibre** cluster showcases a rich array of derivatives like *fibril, fibrilla, fibrin, fibro-, fibroid, fibroin, fibroma, fibrosis, fibr-ous, fibr-ous-ly, fibr-ous-ness*, representing an extensive branching into nouns describing specific types or forms of fibers, a combining form indicating a relation to fibers, and adjectives/ adverbs denoting characteristics or conditions related to or composed of fibers. This proliferation of derivatives from a single base word illustrates the dynamic nature of language in the scientific domain, where precision and specificity are paramount.

3.1.3 Principle of Pragmatism in Constructing Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Etymological Dictionaries

Adherence to the traditional principles of **pragmatism** (Devkin 2000, p. 21; Denisov 1977, p. 216; Dubichinsky 1998, p. 30; Geeraerts 1989, p. 291) and **the theoretical (latest information) and practical planes of etymological dictionaries** (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 51), which coincide with **the principle of relativity and orientation towards the recipient** by M. P. Denisov (Denisov 1980, p. 207), is evidenced by a quote from the chief editor E. Klein, presented in the preface (Introduction) of CEDEL: "one of my chief aims was to show the historic development of science in general and its various branches in particular, with special regard to biology, zoology, botany, mineralogy, geography, geology, history, astronomy, physics, chemistry, mathematics, grammar, philosophy" (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. XII). This means that this dictionary is primarily oriented towards philologists of a broad profile, specialists in English from various scientific fields/areas – biology, zoology, mineralogy, geography, geology, astronomy, physics, chemistry, mathematics, grammar, philosophy, as well as all those interested in the origin of the word, its path in the language, all the changes that have occurred with it on this path – researchers, teachers, students. This is evidence that CEDEL not only presents the etymology of scientific-technical and medical terms (CEDEL, vol. 1, 1966, p. X) but also "considers the peculiarities of all languages" (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 52) regarding terms that were borrowed from different language families: Indo-European, Semito-Hamitic, Austronesian, Turkic, and others.

The principles mentioned above are manifested <u>in the zone of etymology</u>, where, firstly, the etymological character of the headword is presented:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl – A hybrid coined by (…); **acrid** – A blend of (…); **acronym** – Coined fr. (…); **besiclometer** – A hybrid coined fr. (…); **chonolith** – Compounded of (…); **deontology** – Coined by (…).

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW ⇔ERAN/BW): anent – ME. *anent, anentis*, fr. OE. *onefen, onemn*, "near to, close by", orig. "on a level with", fr. *an-, on-*, "on", and *efen*, "even, equal"; **calends, kalends** – ME. *kalendes*, fr. OE. *calend*, "month"; **calf** – ME. *calf, kalf*, fr. OE. *cealf*; **Cedric** – OE. *Cedric*; **enough** – ME. *inogh, enogh, enouh*, fr. OE. *genōh*; **gang** – ME. *gang*, "going; passage", fr. OE. *gang*, "going, passage, channel"; **may** – ME. *mai, mei*, fr. OE. *mæg*, "I am able" (inf. *magan*, "to be able"); **pan** – ME. *panne*, fr. OE. *panne*; **penny** – ME. *peni*, fr. OE. *penig, pening, pending*.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – L. *basanitēs* (*lapis*) comes fr. Gk. βασανῑ́της (λίθος); **bundook** – Hind., fr. Arab. *búnduq*, "missile", orig. "weapon made in Venice"; **caecum** – L., neut. of the adj. *caecus*, "blind"; **Calliope** – L., fr. Gk. Καλλιόπη, lit. "the beautiful-voiced one"; **Carmelite** – L. *Carmēlītês*, fr. Gk. Καρμηλῖτης, "an inhabitant of Carmel"; **Endymion** – L., fr. Gk. Ἐνδυμίων, lit. prob. "Diver, Plunger"; **fiasco** – It., lit. "bottle", in the phrase *far fiasco*, "to make a bottle; to fail"; **fiber, fibre** – F. *fibre*, fr. L. *fibra*, "fiber", which is of uncertain origin; **-ise** – OF. and F. *-ise*, fr. L. *-ītia, -itia, -itium, -icium*; **pro-** – L. *prō-*, fr. *prō-*, "before, in front of, for, on behalf of, instead of"; **Prometheus** – L. *Promētheus*, fr. Gk. Προμηθεύς, lit. "forethinker, foreseer"; **prosbul** – Mishnaic Heb. *pᵉrōzbṓl, pᵉrōzbṓl*; **restaurant** – F.

Secondly, the chronological development of the registered word demonstrates the following: **anent** – ME. *anent, anentis*, fr. OE. *onefen, onemn*, "near to, close by", orig. "on a level with", fr. *an-, on-*, "on", and *efen*, "even, equal"; **calends, kalends** – ME. *kalendes*, fr. OE. *calend*, "month"; **calf** – ME. *calf, kalf*, fr. OE. *cealf*; для **Cedric** – OE. *Cedric*; **enough** – ME. *inogh, enogh, enouh*, fr. OE. *genōh*; **gang** – ME. *gang*, "going; passage", fr. OE. *gang*, "going, passage, channel"; **may** – ME. *mai, mei*, fr. OE. *mæg*, "I am able" (inf. *magan*, "to be able"); **pan** – ME. *panne*, fr. OE. *panne*; **penny** – ME. *peni*, fr. OE. *penig, pening, pending*.

Thirdly, the etymological coverage or characterization of the state of the etymological development of headwords is provided in the information of a purely etymological nature, which presents the experience of reconstruction, which records the etymons of headwords, that is, their reconstructed forms (archetypes, protoforms) with their original meanings, and, if possible, their bases at different stages of the development of the corresponding language, starting from the latest and ending with the oldest:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW):

– **acrid** – OIr. *ēr* (for *akros*), "high", Lith. *aštrùs* (for *okro*, with inserted *t*), "sharp": (a) OIr. *ēr* (for *akros*): The notation "for *akros*" suggests that the Old Irish word *ēr*, meaning "high," is related to a proto-form *akros.* This connection implies a semantic shift or expansion from a concept of height to sharpness or intensity, which is common in etymology, where physical dimensions can metaphorically extend to other sensory experiences; (b) **Lith. *aštrùs* (for *okro*, with inserted t):** The Lithuanian word *aštrùs*, meaning "sharp", is traced back to a form *okro*, which has undergone a phonetic change with the insertion of a "t" to form *aštrùs.* This demonstrates a phonological process where sounds can be added to a word over time, affecting its pronunciation but not necessarily its core meaning.

   – **deontology** – Gk. δεῖ is the third person of δέω, "I am in need of, I need", which prob. stands for *δεύσω, and is rel. to δεύω, δεύσμαι, "I am wanting, I am deficient": (a) **Gk. δε (third person of *δέω*):** The Greek word δεῖ represents a necessity or need and is a form of the verb *δέω*, which means "I am in need of" or "I need". This verb possibly originates from a proto-form *δεύσω*, suggesting an evolution in the verb's conjugation over time; (b) **related to δεύω, δεύσμαι ("I am wanting, I am deficient"):** These forms show a semantic field related to lacking or needing something, which is foundational to the concept of "deontology". The prefix "deonto-" comes from the Greek δέον (*deon*, meaning "duty", from δέω), and the suffix "-logy" comes from λόγος (*logos*, meaning "study"). Thus, "deontology" essentially means "the study of duty" or "the study of what one ought to do", which fits into its use in ethics as the study of moral obligation and duty.

II. PW (PW⇔ERAN/BW, PW⇔ERAN/BW): only for pan – fr. VL. *patna.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): Calliope – The first element derives fr. καλός, "beautiful"; see **calo-**. The second element stands for fr. *Ϝόφ; **pro-** – L. *prō-*, fr. *prō-*, "before, in front of, for, on behalf of, instead of", rel. to *per*, "through", *prae*, "before", *por-* (for *pr̥-*), "forward"; **Prometheus** – L. *Promētheus*, fr. Gk. Προμηθεύς, lit. "forethinker, foreseer", fr. πρό (see 2nd **pro-**) and *μῆθος, "care";

Correspondents of other Indo-European languages that are genetically related and/or etymologically related to headwords turned out to be a separate subheading of information of a purely etymological nature:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – A blend of L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*), "sharp, bitter", and *acidus*, "sour", which are both related to L. *acus*, "needle", *aciēs*, "sharp edge, point, the front of an army, line of battle,

battle array", *acuere*, "to sharpen", Oscan *acrid* (= L. *ācriter*), "sharply", Umbr. *per-acri*, "fruitful, fertile", Gr. ἄκρος, "at the farthest point, highest; pointed", ἀκή, "a point, edge", ἀκίς, "a point", ἄκανθα (…); **acronym** – Coined fr. **acr-** and Gr. ὄνυμα, dial. form of ὄνομα, "name"; **besiclometer** – fr. F. *besicles* (pl.), "spectacles", and Gr. μέτρον, "measure". The first element is an alteration of OF. *Bericle*, fr. L. *bēryllus*, "beryl". The ending of OF. *bericle* was prob. suggested by the synonym *escarboucle*, "carbuncle".

II. NW (NW⇔ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): anent – Cp. OHG. (MHG., G.) *neben*, "near to, by the side of", shortened fr. *ineben*, fr. in, "in", and *ebanī*, "equality"; **calends, kalends** – L. *calendae, kalendae*, "the first day of the month", fr. *calāre*, "to call, proclaim", which is rel. to Umbr. *kařetu, kařitu, carsitu* (= L. *calātō*), "thou shalt (or he shall) call", and cogn. with Gk. καλέω, "I call", κέλαδος, "noise, din", κέλαρύξειν, "to rush, purl", κέλωρ (Hesychius), "sound, voice", Lett. *kaḷuôt*, "to chatter", OHG. *halōn*, "to call", *hellan*, "to resound", *hell*, "resounding", OIr. *cailech*, W. *ceiliog*, Co. *chelioc*, Bret. *kiḷ'ek*, "cock", Lith. *kalbà*, "language", *kalbāsyti*, "to chatter", Lett. *kalada*, "shouting, noise", OPruss. *kaltzā, kelsāi*, "it sounds", the second element in OI. *uṣā-kalaḥ*, "cock", Toch. B *kal(n)-*, AB *käl(n)-*, "to resound"; **calf** – OS., MDu. *calf*, ON. *kālfr*, Dan. *kalv*, Swed., Du. *kalf*, OHG. *chalp, kalb*, MHG. *kalp*, G. Kalb, Goth. *kalbo*, "calf", OHG. *kilbur* (neut.), *kilburra* (fem.), OE. *cilforlamb, ceolforlamb*, "ewe lamb", OI. *gárbhaḥ*, Avestic *garᵘwa-*, "womb", Gk. δελφύς, δολφός (in Hesychius), "womb", ἀδελφός, "brother" (lit. "from the same womb"), Avestic *gᵘrᵘbush*, "the young of an animal".

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – Gk. βασανῖτης (λίθος), fr. Βασάν, "Bashan", Heb. *Bāshắn*; для **bundook** – Arab. *búnduq*; **caecum** – Gk. καικίας, "northeast wind", lit. "the dark one", L. *Aquilō*, "north wind", fr. *aquilus*, "dark", OI. *kēkaraḥ*, "squinting", OIr. *caech*, "one-eyed", MIr. *let-chaech*, "squinting", W. *coeg*, "empty", *coeg-ddall*, "one-eyed", Goth. *haihs*, "one-eyed"; **Calliope** – Gk. Καλλιόπη, lit. "the beautiful-voiced one", compounded of κάλλος, "beauty", and ὄφ, gen. ὀπός, "voice". The first element derives fr. καλός, "beautiful", Gk. ἔπος (Cypriote Ϝέπος), "word", L. *vōx*, "voice, sound, tone, call"; **pro-** – OI. *pára*, "beyond", *prá-*, "before, forward, forth", Gk. πρό, "before", πάρος, "before", παρά, "from beside, against, beyond", περί, "around, about, toward", Goth. *faúra*, "before", OE. *fore*, "before, for, on account of".

As we can see, the material of genetically related and etymologically related to the headwords of the counterparts of other Indo-European languages is organized within the boundaries of the Baltic, Greek, Germanic, Indo-Aryan and Romance

language groups, as well as the Anatolian or Hittite-Luvian dead group of languages, which in the articles are presented both in abbreviated form and in full: Alb. – Albanian, Arab. – Arabian, Arm. – Armenian, Ascan, Att. – Attic, Avestic, Bret. – Breton, Co. – Cornish, Dan. – Danish, Dor. – Doric, Du. – Dutch, F. – French, G. – German, Gk. – Greek, Goth. – Gothic, Heb. – Hebrew, Hitt. – Hittite, It. – Italian, L. – Latin, Lett. – Lettish, LG. – Low German, Lith. – Lithuanian, MDu. – Middle Dutch, ME. – Middle English, MHG. – Middle High German, MIr. – Middle Irish, ML. – Medieval Latin, MLG. – Middle Low German, OE. – Old English, OF. – Old French, OFris. – Old Frisian, OHG. – Old High German, OI. – Old Indian, OIr. – Old Irish, OL. – Old Latin, OLG. – Old Low German, ON. – Old Norse, OPruss. – Old Prussian, OS. – Old Saxon, Oscan, OSlav. – Old Slavic, Swed. – Swedish, Toch. – Tocharian, Umbr. – Umbrian, W. – Welsh.

In separate dictionary articles, the Indo-European root or common base of the headword is introduced:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – A blend fr. I.-E. base *ak-, *aq-, "sharp, pointed".

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW ⇔ERAN/BW): calends, **kalends** – I.-E. imitative base *kel-, *kal-, "to shout, resound"; **calf** – I.-E. base *gʷelbh-, *gʷolbh-, "womb; young of an animal"; **enough** – I.-E. base *enek-, *nek-, *n̥k-, "to reach, attain, carry"; **gang** – I.-E. base *ĝhengh-, *ĝhongh-, "to step"; **may** – I.-E. base *māgh-, *mĕgh-, "to be able"; **pan** – I.-E. base *pet-, "to spread".

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): Calliope – fr. I.-E. *woqʷ-s, whence also Gk. ἔπος (Cypriote Ϝέπος); **fiber, fibre** – It stands perh. for I.-E. *gʷhis-rā and is rel. to fīkum, "thread", which stands for *gʷhis-lom; **inter** – fr. I.-E. *enter or *n̥ter, "between, among", I.-E. *en-ter, *n̥ter is compar. of *en, "in"; **Prometheus** – fr. I.-E. *mā-dh-, a var. of *men-dh-, enlargement of base *men-, "to think".

3.2 *Linguistic Principles* to Constructing Microstructures in A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

3.2.1 Pronetic Principle

The phonetic or phonological principle in orthography refers to the relationship between the sounds of a language (phonemes) and the letters or letter combinations (graphemes) used to represent those sounds in written form. This principle is foundational to how written languages are constructed and understood, particularly in the design and use of alphabets. Orthography is the conventions for writing a language, including spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, and punctuation.

Under the phonetic or phonological principle, an ideal orthographic system would have a consistent one-to-one correspondence between phonemes and graphemes, meaning each sound in the spoken language is represented by a distinct symbol in the written language, and each symbol corresponds to only one sound. This principle facilitates reading and writing by making it easier for learners to connect the sounds of the language with its written form, supporting phonics in literacy education.

However, in practice, many writing systems exhibit varying degrees of deviation from a purely phonetic principle due to historical, linguistic, and practical reasons. English, for example, has a relatively deep orthography, meaning there is often not a straightforward one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters due to the accumulation of exceptions and historical spelling conventions. In contrast, languages like Finnish or Korean have a more shallow orthography, with a closer and more consistent alignment between sounds and their written representation, making them more phonetically transparent.

The phonetic or phonological principle is crucial for understanding how different writing systems are learned and processed cognitively and in the teaching of reading and writing. Systems that adhere more closely to this principle are generally considered easier to learn because of the predictability and consistency in the relationship between written symbols and their corresponding sounds.

For further information and a deeper understanding of this concept, references such as "Understanding Phonology" by Carlos Gussenhoven and Haike Jacobs or "Orthography, Phonology, Morphology, and Meaning" edited by Ram Frost and Leonard Katz provide comprehensive insights into the phonological principles underlying various orthographic systems. These sources discuss the

complexities and variations in how languages represent sounds in written form, contributing to the broader field of linguistics and language education.

In the process of analyzing language data material, phonetic variants were found in dictionary entries, particularly <u>in the zone of etymology</u>:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – A blend of L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*), "sharp, bitter", and *acidus*, "sour", which are both related to L. *acus*, "needle", *aciēs*, "sharp edge, point, the front of an army, line of battle, battle array".

The word "acrid" exemplifies blending linguistic elements to create a term rich in sensory and historical significance. Stemming from the Latin words "ācer" (meaning "sharp, bitter") and "acidus" (meaning "sour"), "acrid" is a linguistic concoction that marries the qualities of sharpness and sourness. This blending is not merely phonological but deeply semantic, reflecting the human tendency to describe sensory experiences through language. The connection to physical sharpness, as seen in Latin words like "acus" (needle), further enriches the term's semantic field, linking taste and smell with the tactile.

As "acrid" transitioned into English, it underwent phonetic adaptation, maintaining the initial "ac-" sound indicative of its sharp and pungent characteristics. This adaptation reflects the broader linguistic principle of maintaining semantic essence even as words morph phonologically and morphologically to fit new linguistic landscapes. In modern usage, "acrid" has expanded to describe physical sensations of taste and smell and metaphorically harsh and irritating experiences, showcasing the language's capacity for semantic broadening.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): calends, kalends – ME. *kalendes*, fr. OE. *calend*, "month", fr. L. *calendae*, *kalendae*, "the first day of the month", fr. *calāre*, "to call, proclaim", which is rel. to Umbr. *kařetu*, *kařitu*, *carsitu* (= L. *calātō*), "thou shalt (or he shall) call", and cogn. with Gk. καλέω, "I call", κέλαδος, "noise, din", κέλαρύξειν, "to rush, purl", κέλωρ (Hesychius), "sound, voice", Lett. *kaļuôt*, "to chatter", OHG. *halōn*, "to call", *hellan*, "to resound", *hell*, "resounding", OIr. *cailech*, W. *ceiliog*, Co. *chelioc*, Bret. *kiľek*, "cock", Lith. *kalbà*, "language", *kalbāsyti*, "to chatter", Lett. *kalada*, "shouting, noise".

The word "calends" offers a captivating glimpse into the evolution of language across cultures and epochs. Originating from the Latin "calendae", which signifies "the first day of the month", this term encapsulates the Roman tradition of marking time. Its journey from Latin into Old English as "calend" and subsequently into Middle English "kalendes" showcases the intricate process of linguistic evolution. Phonologically, this evolution is marked by systematic sound changes, such as consonant shifts and vowel modifications, guided by

established phonetic laws like Grimm's and Verner's Laws. These laws explain the predictability of sound changes as words migrate from one language to another.

Furthermore, the semantic expansion of the root "cal-" to include various notions related to calling, noise, and even specific terms across languages illustrates the breadth of meaning emanating from a single word. From Greek to Celtic to Baltic languages, "calends" and its derivatives encompass a range of sounds and meanings, from the act of calling to the noises of life and language. This semantic broadening highlights language's adaptability and its ability to capture the multifaceted nature of human experience through sound.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): Endymion – L., fr. Gk. Ἐνδυμίων, lit. prob. "Diver, Plunger", fr. ἐνδύειν, "to enter into, sink into", fr. ἐν (see 2ⁿᵈ **en**-) and δύειν, "to enter into, sink into, plunge into, dive; to set" (prop. "to dive into the sea"; said of the sun and stars).

The etymology of "Endymion", a name steeped in myth and poetry, provides a fascinating glimpse into the linguistic and cultural intersections of the ancient world. Originating from Greek (Ενδυμίων) and later adopted into Latin, the name is believed to mean "Diver" or "Plunger", derived from the verb ἐνδύειν ("to enter into, sink into"). This verb itself is a compound of ἐν (en-, meaning "in" or "into") and δύειν ("to enter into, sink into, plunge into, dive; to set"), which is particularly associated with the act of diving into the sea—a vivid imagery often applied metaphorically to the setting of the sun and stars in ancient Greek literature.

This etymological exploration uncovers the literal meaning behind Endymion's name and invites us to delve deeper into the mythological narrative that has captivated imaginations for centuries. Endymion, a figure of extraordinary beauty, is most famously known for his eternal sleep, during which the Moon (Selene in Greek mythology) falls in love. The action of "sinking into" or "diving into" sleep here beautifully mirrors the literal meaning of his name, suggesting a deliberate linguistic choice to emphasize the depth and permanence of his slumber.

Moreover, the imagery of "diving" and "sinking" resonates with the myth's themes of longing and the elusive nature of desire. Just as Endymion plunges into an endless sleep, so does Selene dive into the depths of her unattainable love, a sentiment echoed in the cyclical setting and rising of celestial bodies. The verb δύειν, with its associations to the celestial phenomena of setting and plunging into the sea, enriches the narrative by aligning Endymion's fate with the natural order of the cosmos, blurring the lines between the mortal and the divine.

In tracing the etymology of "Endymion" back to its Greek roots, we uncover a layer of meaning that illuminates the myth's underlying themes and imagery. The convergence of linguistic analysis and mythological storytelling enhances our understanding of ancient narratives and demonstrates the power of names to

encapsulate and convey complex concepts and emotions. Through the lens of language, we gain insight into the cultural and philosophical underpinnings of myths, revealing the depth and richness of our shared human heritage.

3.2.2   Semantic Principle

The semantic principle in orthography refers to written language that represents meaning through spelling and word formation rather than strictly adhering to phonetic or phonological rules. Unlike the phonetic principle, which focuses on sound-to-letter correspondence, the semantic principle emphasizes how spelling can reflect the meaning and relationships between words, sometimes at the expense of phonetic consistency.

This principle is evident in several ways:

Morphological Consistency: Spellings are often consistent across related words to highlight their morphological (form and structure) relationships, even when phonetic changes might suggest different spellings. For example, the relation between "electric" and "electricity" or "sign" and "signature" shows how the root word's spelling is preserved to maintain a visible link between the words despite changes in pronunciation.

Etymological Spelling: Spelling can reflect the history or origin of words rather than their current phonetic pronunciation. This aspect of the semantic principle maintains the connection between a word and its etymological roots, often borrowed from other languages. It may not align with the current phonetic representation in the borrowing language. For instance, the "b" in "debt" is silent in modern English but is kept to reflect its Latin origin, "debitum".

Homophones and Homographs: The semantic principle helps distinguish between homophones (words that sound the same but have different meanings, e.g., "pair" and "pear") through different spellings that provide visual clues to their meanings, even though phonetically they could be represented by the same symbols.

The semantic principle obliges the researcher to find commonalities in the meanings of the etymon and the etymological word, considering the patterns of semantic changes. So, for example, the word swan is associated with the Indo-European root *elb "white" (Latin albus "white", German Elba, Czech Laba – the name of the river, "white") and it is believed that this name is given by its color. Naming birds by color is a fairly common phenomenon (tit, crow, "gray" nightingale). So, such etymology does not violate the semantic principle. Based on the semantic principle, the regularities of semantic changes in the development of the meanings of the headword, which is subject to etymology, are pre-

sented: if the semantic development of the headword is presented in <u>the zone of the headword</u> in synchrony, then <u>in the zone of etymology</u> – in diachrony.

Semantic development of headwords in *synchrony:*

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl, n., the radical of acetic acid (…); **acronym**, n., a word formed from the first letters of a series of words (…); **besiclometer**, n., an instrument for measuring the forehead to establish the exact size of the spectacles; **chonolith**, n., a mess of igneous rock (*geol.*); **deontology**, n., the science of moral duty.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): anent, prep., concerning, about; **calends**, **kalends**, n. pl., the first day of the ancient Roman month; **calf**, n., a young of cow, etc.; **gang**, n., a group of people; **pan**, n., a broad vessel; a band.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): bundook, n., a rifle; **caecum**, n., the blind gut (*anat.*); **Calliope**, n., the Muse presiding over epic poetry (*Greek mythol.*); **Endymion**, n., a beautiful youth loved by the Greek moon goddess Selene (*Greek mythol.*); **fiasco**, n., a complete failure.

In linguistics, exploring word formation reveals intricate semantic laws that govern how meanings are constructed and interpreted. By delving into examples such as acetyl, acronym, besiclometer, chonolith, and deontology, we uncover the fascinating mechanisms of compositionality, derivation, neologism, and semantic shift in the synchronic analysis of language.

The principle of compositionality is pivotal in understanding how complex expressions derive meaning from their constituent parts and the specific rules for their combination. Consider the term "acetyl", a radical in organic chemistry associated with acetic acid. Its formation demonstrates how semantic components related to chemical terminology are combined to articulate precise scientific concepts. Similarly, "acronym" illustrates this principle through its construction from "acro-" (tip or end) and "-nym" (name), ingeniously capturing the essence of forming a word from the initials of a sequence of words.

Derivation and affixation further enrich our linguistic landscape, showcasing the evolution of words by adding prefixes and suffixes. "Deontology", for instance, emerges from the Greek root "deon" (duty) combined with "-logy" (the study of), thus introducing a new dimension to the discourse on moral philosophy by specifying it as the study of moral duty. This process underscores the adaptability of language to encompass evolving concepts and ideas.

The creation of new terminologies, or neologism, alongside borrowing elements from other languages, plays a crucial role in expanding our lexical repertoire. "Besiclometer", a term coined to name a device measuring the forehead

for spectacles, reflects the inventive aspect of language to accommodate technological and scientific advancements. Meanwhile, "chonolith", a geological term, borrows from Greek to describe a specific type of igneous rock formation, melding ancient linguistic roots with contemporary scientific discovery.

Furthermore, semantic shift allows words to transcend their original meanings, adapting over time to reflect knowledge, culture, and technology changes. Through this lens, each word examined—rooted in chemistry, linguistics, optics, geology, or ethics—is a testament to the dynamic interplay between language, meaning, and human ingenuity.

In summary, exploring words like acetyl, acronym, besiclometer, chonolith, and deontology unveils the rich tapestry of semantic laws in synchrony. Language continuously evolves through compositionality, derivation, neologism, and semantic shift, mirroring the ever-changing landscape of human thought and innovation. This intricate dance of meanings, rooted in tradition and invention, highlights the enduring power of words to define, describe, and deepen our understanding of the world around us.

Semantic development of headwords in *diachrony*:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl – fr. L. *acētum*, "vinegar" (see prec. word); **acrid** – L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*), "sharp, bitter", and *acidus*, "sour", L. *acus*, "needle", *aciēs*, "sharp edge, point, the front of an army, line of battle, battle array", *acuere*, "to sharpen", Oscan *acrid* (= L. *ācriter*), "sharply", Umbr. *per-acri*, "fruitful, fertile" (…).

II. NW (NW⇔ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): enough – OS. *ginōg*, ON. *gnōgr*, Swed. *nog*, Dan. *nok*, OFris. *enōch*, Du. *genoeg*, OHG. *ginuog(i)*, MHG. *genuoc*, G. *genug*, Goth. *ganohs*, "enough", OE. *geneah*, OHG. *ginah*, Goth. *ganah*, "it suffices", OI. *aśnṓti*, Avestic *ashnaoiti*, "reaches, arrives at", OI. *násati*, Avestic *nasaiti*, "reaches", OI. *áṃśaḥ*, "portion, part", Avestic *ąsa-*, "party"; **may** – OS. *mugan*, OFris. *muga*, ON. *mega*, Norw. *moga*, Dan. *maatte*, Swed. *må*, MDu. *moghen*, Du. *mogen*, OHG. *magan*, *mugan*, MHG. *mugen*, *mügen*, G. *mögen*, Goth. *magan*, "to be able", Gk. μῆχος, Dor. μᾶχος, "means, instrument", μηχανή, "means, invention, machine", OSlav. *mogǫ*, *mošti*, "to be able", *moštĭ*, "power; force", OPruss. *massi*, "I can".

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – Gk. βασανΐτης (λίϑος), fr. Βασάν, "Bashan"; **caecum** – Gk. καικίᾱς, "northeast wind", lit. "the dark one", L. *Aquilō*, "north wind", fr. *aquilus*, "dark", OI. *kēkaraḥ*, "squinting", OIr. *caech*, "one-eyed", MIr. *let-chaech*, "squinting", W. *coeg*, "empty", *coeg-ddall*, "one-eyed", Goth. *haihs*, "one-eyed"; **pro-** – OI. *pára*, "beyond", *prá-*, "before, forward, forth", Gk. πρό, "before", πάρος, "before", παρά,

"from beside, against, beyond", περί, "around, about, toward", Goth. *faúra*, "before", OE. *fore*, "before, for, on account of"; **Prometheus** – Gk. Προμηθεύς, lit. "forethinker, foreseer"; **restaurant** – F. *restaurant* is pres. part. of *restaurer*, "to restore".

The diachronic analysis of semantics, focusing on how the meanings of words evolve, reveals fascinating insights into linguistic development across cultures and epochs. By examining the historical progression of terms like "acetyl", "acrid", "enough", "may", "basalt", "caecum", "pro-", and "Prometheus", we can trace the complex interplay of semantic shift, specialization, generalization, metaphorical extension, and borrowing. These processes illustrate the dynamic nature of language as it adapts to changes in cultural, technological, and conceptual landscapes.

The concept of semantic shift is vividly illustrated in the evolution of "acrid", originating from Latin terms denoting sharpness or sourness and narrowing over time to describe a pungent taste or smell specific. This shift reflects not just a change in lexical meaning but also sensory perception and cultural emphasis on specific characteristics of substances.

Specialization, another critical diachronic process, is evident in the term "acetyl". Derived from the broader context of vinegar in Latin, its meaning has narrowed in modern chemistry to specify a particular radical. This reflects the increasing precision and specialization of scientific language as knowledge advances.

Conversely, metaphorical extension allows for broadening a word's meaning through associative or conceptual links. "Basalt", with its origins tied to a specific geographical location in ancient Greece, now denotes a type of igneous rock. This transition from place name to rock type underscores the influence of geographical and natural observations on linguistic development.

As seen in the adoption of "restaurant" from French, the borrowing process showcases how languages enrich their lexicons by incorporating words from other tongues, often infusing them with new meanings or nuances. Originally denoting an act of restoration, "restaurant" has come to signify a place where food is served, demonstrating both semantic shift and specialization within the borrowed context.

Furthermore, the evolution of the word "enough" across several Indo-European languages, from Old Saxon to Old Irish and beyond, highlights a shared linguistic heritage that diverges in specific usage while maintaining a core concept of sufficiency. Similarly, the term "may" has transitioned from denoting physical capability or power to expressing permission, reflecting shifts in societal norms and linguistic practices.

The prefix "pro-" exemplifies how prepositions can evolve across languages, from Old Irish to Greek and Gothic, maintaining a sense of precedence or favoring while diversifying in application. The mythical name "Prometheus", meaning "forethinker" or "foreseer" in Greek, demonstrates how names and titles can encapsulate complex narratives and traits, influencing linguistic and cultural motifs.

In summary, the diachronic semantic analysis of these terms uncovers the rich tapestry of linguistic change driven by human innovation, cultural exchange, and the perpetual motion of societal development. Through this lens, language is not merely a static entity but a vibrant, evolving organism that reflects and shapes human understanding of the world.

3.2.3   Morphological (Word-Formation) Principle

The morphological (word-formation) principle in orthography relates to how words are formed and structured in written language. It emphasizes the relationship between words based on their morphemes—the minor meaningful units in a language. This principle underlines how spelling can reflect the morphological structure of words, including their roots, prefixes, suffixes, and inflections, maintaining consistency across different forms of the same word or related words, even if phonetic principles suggest different spellings.

Critical aspects of the morphological principle include:

Root Consistency: The spellings of root words are often maintained across different derivations to highlight their common origin and facilitate recognition of related words. For example, the root "dict" is kept in "dictate", "dictation", "dictionary", and "predict", despite variations in pronunciation and suffixes.

Inflectional Endings means how words change form to express tense, case, number, or mood while retaining a base spelling and, for instance, adding "-s" or "-es" for plural forms ("cat" to "cats", "bus" to "buses") or "-ed" for past tense ("walk" to "walked"), which helps to identify the word's base form and its grammatical role.

Prefixes and Suffixes. Consistent spelling of prefixes and suffixes across different words indicates their meanings and functions, such as "un-" to denote negation (as in "unhappy") or "-ness" to form nouns from adjectives (as in "happiness"). This consistency aids in understanding the relationship between words and how they are constructed.

The morphological principle supports a deeper understanding of language structure, aiding vocabulary development and reading comprehension. It shows how orthography is not purely phonetic but deeply intertwined with the grammar and meaning of words, reflecting the complex ways language is used to convey

ideas. This principle can be particularly helpful in education, assisting learners in recognizing patterns in word formation that can be applied to understand new words and their meanings.

The word-forming (morphological) principle can be traced in the derivatives of headwords presented <u>in the zone of etymology</u>:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – *acrid-ity*, n., *acrid-ly*, adv., *acrid-ness*, n.; **deontology** – *deontology-ical*, adj., *deontology-ist*, n.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): enough – *enough*, n. and adv.; **gang** – *gang-er*, n.; **pan** – *pan*, tr. and intr. v., *pan-ful*, adj., *pan-er*, n., *pan-ery*, n.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): fiber, fibre – *fibril* (q.v.), *fibrilla* (q.v.), *fibrin* (q.v.), *fibro-*, combining form, *fibroid* (q.v.), *fibroin* (q.v.), n., *fibroma* (q.v.), *fibrosis* (q.v.), *fibr-ous*, adj., *fibr-ous-ly*, adv., *fibrous-ness*, n.

Analyzing the provided data from a morphological perspective, we delve into the principles of word formation that underpin the creation of related words from base forms. Morphology, the study of the structure of words, encompasses processes like derivation and compounding, which are pivotal in expanding the lexicon and adapting language to new concepts and ideas. The examples of "acrid", "deontology", "enough", "gang", "pan", and "fiber" illustrate various morphological strategies employed to generate new words or forms of words, highlighting the flexibility and creativity inherent in language.

Derivation involves creating new words by adding prefixes and suffixes to base words or stems. This process can change the word's grammatical category (e.g., from a noun to an adjective) or modify its meaning.

Acrid forms derivatives like "acridity" (noun), "acridly" (adverb), and "acridness" (noun), using suffixes "-ity", "-ly", and "-ness" to create words that express the state, manner, and quality of being acrid, respectively.

Deontology generates "deontological" (adjective) and "deontologist" (noun) through the addition of "-ical" and "-ist". These derivatives signify deontology and someone who studies or practices deontology, showcasing how suffixes denote disciplinary specificity and practitioner identity.

Inflection refers to modifying words to express different grammatical categories such as tense, case, voice, aspect, person, number, gender, and mood without changing the meaning of the word base. The example "enough" functions as a noun and adverb without morphological change, representing a case where word class is determined by syntactic context rather than inflectional morphology.

Fiber demonstrates a complex network of derivatives, including "fibril", "fibrilla", "fibrin", and words with the prefix "fibro-" like "fibroid", "fibroin", "fibroma", and "fibrosis". Additionally, adjectives such as "fibrous" and derivatives "fibrously" and "fibrousness" are formed through suffixation, reflecting various aspects and conditions related to fiber, both in physical and biological contexts. These examples underscore the versatility of derivational morphology in creating a rich vocabulary within specific domains.

Words like "pan" exhibit shifts in lexical categories through morphology, functioning as transitive and intransitive verbs and forming derivatives like "panful" (adjective), "panner" (noun), and "pannery" (noun), which indicate states, agents, and places related to the action of "panning".

The morphological analysis of these words illustrates the dynamic and systematic nature of word formation in language. Through processes like derivation and inflection, as well as more nuanced morphological mechanisms, languages can efficiently create a vast array of new words to meet the communicative demands of their speakers, reflecting both the creative capacity of human linguistic expression and the systematic principles that underlie language structure.

3.2.4   Genetic (Genealogical) Principle

The genetic (genealogical) principle in orthography refers to the approach of spelling and writing systems that emphasizes words' historical and etymological origins. This principle acknowledges the development and evolution of language over time, preserving the original spelling of words to reflect their ancestry and lineage, even if the pronunciation and common usage have shifted.

Critical aspects of the genetic principle include:

Historical Spelling: Maintaining the original spelling of words as they were adopted into a language, which can include archaic spellings that no longer align with contemporary pronunciation. For example, the "k" in "knight" is silent in modern English but reflects the word's historical pronunciation and Germanic roots.

Etymological Consistency: Spelling that reflects the origin of words from other languages, maintaining elements that may not be phonetically intuitive in the borrowing language. This can help trace the origin and transformation of words as they move across languages and cultures. An example is the word "debt", which includes a "b" to reflect its Latin origin, "debitum", despite the "b" not being pronounced in English.

Genealogical Relationships: Highlighting the connections between languages within the same family by preserving spellings that indicate shared roots. This

aspect can reveal words' linguistic heritage and evolution as languages diverge and influence one another over time.

The genetic principle enriches the orthographic system by embedding historical and linguistic depth into the written word, allowing speakers and readers to appreciate the layered history of their language and its connections to other languages. However, it can also introduce complexities in spelling and pronunciation that challenge learners and speakers, particularly in languages with deep orthographies where the relationship between spelling and sound could be more complex. This principle underscores the importance of understanding language as a living, evolving entity, where orthography serves as a communication tool and a repository of cultural and historical identity.

The genetic (genealogical) principle was found among the genetically related and/or etymologically related to headwords of the counterparts of other languages of the Indo-European family, represented <u>in the zone of etymology</u>:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acrid – A blend of L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*), "sharp, bitter", and *acidus*, "sour"; **acronym** – Coined fr. **acr-** and Gr. ὄνυμα, dial. form of ὄνομα, "name".

The word "acrid" demonstrates a blend of Latin origins, combining "ācer" (with its gender variants ācris and ācre), meaning "sharp, bitter", and "acidus", meaning "sour". The blending of these two Latin roots into "acrid" in English showcases a direct genetic lineage from Latin, a member of the Italic branch of the Indo-European language family. This blending of roots within the same language family illustrates an internal borrowing and fusion process joint in the evolution of languages as they adapt and refine their lexicons to express nuanced meanings. The ability to combine these elements from Latin reflects the depth of influence that Latin, as a source language, has had on English, mainly through the channels of scientific and scholarly discourse.

"Acronym" is a more recent linguistic innovation, coined from the prefix "acr-" deriving from the Greek "ἄκρος" (meaning "tip, end") and the suffix "-onym" from the Greek "ὄνυμα" (a dialectal form of "ὄνομα", meaning "name"). This word formation process involves elements from Greek, an ancient language of the Hellenic branch of the Indo-European family, illustrating a cross-linguistic borrowing into English. The creation of "acronym" represents a more deliberate and conscious process of neologism, where parts of words from different languages are combined to form a new term that fills a linguistic gap. This type of borrowing highlights the dynamic nature of language evolution, where communication needs lead to the creation of new terms through the inventive combination of linguistic elements from various sources.

The analysis of "acrid" and "acronym" in terms of their genetic relationships sheds light on the processes of language change, including direct inheritance,

blending, and borrowing. While "acrid" exemplifies how new meanings can emerge from combining related lexical items within a single language family, "acronym" demonstrates how languages can creatively borrow and recombine elements from unrelated languages to coin new terms. Both processes are integral to the evolution of language, reflecting how languages interact with each other and how speakers innovate within their linguistic systems to express new concepts and realities.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): calends, **kalends** – L. *calendae*, *kalendae*, "the first day of the month", fr. *calāre*, "to call, proclaim", which is rel. to Umbr. *kařetu*, *kařitu*, *carsitu* (= L. *calātō*), "thou shalt (or he shall) call", and cogn. with Gk. καλέω, "I call", κέλαδος, "noise, din", κέλαρύξειν, "to rush, purl", κέλωρ (Hesychius), "sound, voice", Lett. *kaļuôt*, "to chatter", OHG. *halōn*, "to call", *hellan*, "to resound", *hell*, "resounding", OIr. *cailech*, W. *ceiliog*, Co. *chelioc*, Bret. *kiľek*, "cock", Lith. *kalbà*, "language", *kalbāsyti*, "to chatter", Lett. *kalada*, "shouting, noise", OPruss. *kaltzā*, *kelsāi*, "it sounds", the second element in OI. *uṣā-kalaḥ*, "cock", Toch. B *kal(n)*-, AB *käl(n)*-, "to resound".

The etymology of "calends" or "kalends" and its related forms across various Indo-European languages offers a profound insight into the genetic relationships and shared linguistic heritage among these languages. Originally derived from the Latin "calendae" or "kalendae", meaning "the first day of the month", the word traces back to the verb "calāre", which means "to call" or "proclaim". This connection is foundational in understanding the semantic evolution and widespread linguistic influence emanating from ancient Roman practices, precisely the proclamation of the new month.

The relationship between Latin "calāre" and its counterparts in other Indo-European languages demonstrates a common linguistic ancestry, showcasing how ancient words evolved and diverged across different cultures and regions. For example, the Umbrian "kařetu", "kařitu", and "carsitu" (corresponding to Latin "calātō"), meaning "thou shalt (or he shall) call", directly links the Italic languages, highlighting their shared etymological roots.

This shared lineage extends beyond Italic languages to include Greek (καλέω – "I call"), Old High German (halōn – "to call"), Old Irish (cailech), Welsh (ceiliog), Cornish (chelioc), Breton (kil'ek), Lithuanian (kalbà – "language"), and Latvian (kalada – "shouting, noise"), among others. These connections are not merely coincidental but illustrate the profound, interwoven relationships within the Indo-European language family, showcasing how a fundamental concept like "calling" or "proclaiming" can manifest in various linguistic forms while retaining a semblance of its original meaning.

Furthermore, the inclusion of terms for "cock" in several Celtic languages (Old Irish, Welsh, Cornish, Breton) and even in Old Indic (uṣā-kalaḥ) underscores the

symbolic importance of the rooster's call in marking the start of a new day, which metaphorically aligns with the concept of the "calends" as the start of a new month. This semantic extension from "calling" to the "caller" (the cock) in the morning illustrates how linguistic evolution captures and reflects cultural and natural observations.

The Tocharian "kal(n)-" and "käl(n)-" for "to resound" further demonstrate the spread and adaptation of this root across the vast Indo-European expanse, reaching even the easternmost branches of the family. This shows linguistic elements' remarkable endurance and adaptability as they traverse geographic, cultural, and temporal boundaries.

In summary, the analysis of "calends" from a genetic linguistic perspective reveals a fascinating tapestry of interconnectedness among the Indo-European languages, highlighting the shared origins and evolutionary paths that words can take. Through the lens of this single term and its related concepts, we glimpse the complex processes of linguistic change, migration, and adaptation that have shaped the languages of Europe and parts of Asia, echoing ancient connections that resonate in our speech today.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – Gk. βασανΐτης (λίθος), fr. Βασάν, "Bashan", Heb. *Bāshắn*; **bundook** – Arab. *búnduq*; **caecum** – Gk. καικίᾱς, "northeast wind", lit. "the dark one", L. *Aquilō*, "north wind", fr. *aquilus*, "dark", OI. *kēkaraḥ*, "squinting", OIr. *caech*, "one-eyed", MIr. *let-chaech*, "squinting", W. *coeg*, "empty", *coeg-ddall*, "one-eyed", Goth. *haihs*, "one-eyed".

The genetic relationships and etymological origins of the words "basalt", "bundook", and "caecum" illustrate the rich tapestry of linguistic exchanges and the pathways through which words travel across languages and cultures. These examples highlight how languages borrow from each other, adapt meanings, and often retain phonetic or semantic elements from their origins, reflecting the interconnectedness of human cultures and their languages.

The term **"basalt"** originates from the Greek "βασανίτης λίθος" (basanítēs líthos), meaning "stone from Basan", referring to the region of Bashan in the Hebrew Bible (Hebrew: Bāshắn). This etymology reflects a geographical borrowing, where a place name becomes associated with a particular type of rock found there. Then, the term is adopted into another language to refer to similar rocks irrespective of their geographical origin. This transfer from Hebrew to Greek, and eventually into various modern languages, underscores how scientific terminology often has roots in ancient geographical and cultural exchanges.

"Bundook" is a borrowing from the Arabic "búnduq", meaning "hazelnut", and later "musket" or "rifle", illustrating a fascinating semantic shift. The original term likely referred to the size or shape of bullets or the smoothbore guns

used in the early firearms era, resembling hazelnuts. This word exemplifies how technological items can be named metaphorically after everyday objects and how these terms can be adopted across languages. This reflects the spread of technology and cultural contacts, especially in regions influenced by Arabic trade, culture, or conquest.

The term **"caecum"** is derived from the Latin "caecus", meaning "blind", referring to the "blind" pouch of the large intestine that has only one opening. The etymological journey of this word can be traced back to ancient descriptions of bodily functions and parts, drawing on metaphorical uses of language to describe natural phenomena. The Greek "καικίας" (kaikías), referring to the "northeast wind" and metaphorically "the dark one", and the Latin "Aquilō" for "north wind", coming from "aquilus" (dark), show how descriptions of natural phenomena can influence anatomical terminology, emphasizing the descriptive and metaphorical richness of ancient medical language. The connection to words meaning "one-eyed" or "squinting" in Old Irish, Middle Irish, Welsh, and Gothic further illustrates the semantic breadth and the interplay between physical appearance, function, and linguistic expression across Indo-European languages.

These examples, "basalt", "bundook", and "caecum", each tell a story of human interaction, trade, conquest, and observation of the natural world, demonstrating how languages absorb and transform words from one another. They showcase the complexity of linguistic evolution, where words are symbols for communication and carriers of cultural history and knowledge, traversing vast distances and epochs to reach us today.

3.2.5   Areal Principle

The areal principle in linguistics and orthography refers to the influence of geographical proximity and language contact on the development and characteristics of languages, including their writing systems. This principle highlights how languages within a particular geographical area, or "linguistic area", can share features not due to common genetic heritage (genealogical relationships) but because of borrowing and influence resulting from close contact between the speakers of these languages.

Critical aspects of the areal principle include:

Feature Sharing: Languages in the same geographical region may exhibit similar phonological, grammatical, syntactic, or lexical characteristics, even among languages that are not closely related. This convergence can result from prolonged contact, trade, migration, or cultural exchange, leading to a blending or assimilation of linguistic features.

Orthographic Convergence: In terms of orthography, the areal principle can lead to similarities in writing systems among languages in close geographical proximity. This can include the adoption of specific scripts, punctuation, or orthographic conventions influenced by the region's dominant or historically significant languages.

Multilingual Influence: Regions with high levels of multilingualism or where speakers routinely use several languages may develop writing systems designed to accommodate multiple languages' phonological or syntactic characteristics. This can lead to hybrid or adapted orthographic systems that reflect the linguistic diversity of the area.

Standardization Across Borders: The areal principle can also influence efforts to standardize language and orthography across political or national borders, promoting a shared written form that facilitates communication and cultural exchange among people in the same linguistic area.

The areal principle can be traced in the dictionary articles of words borrowed from other languages:

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – L. *basanitēs* (*lapis*) comes fr. Gk. βασανΐτης (λΐθος); **bundook** – Hind., fr. Arab. *búnduq*, "missile", orig. "weapon made in Venice"; **caecum** – L., neut. of the adj. *caecus*, "blind"; **Calliope** – L., fr. Gk. Καλλιόπη, lit. "the beautiful-voiced one"; **Carmelite** – L. *Carmēlītês*, fr. Gk. Καρμηλΐτης, "an inhabitant of Carmel"; **Endymion** – L., fr. Gk. Ἐνδυμΐων, lit. prob. "Diver, Plunger"; **fiasco** – It., lit. "bottle", in the phrase *far fiasco*, "to make a bottle; to fail"; **fiber, fibre** – F. *fibre*, fr. L. *fibra*, "fiber", which is of uncertain origin; **-ise** – OF. and F. *-ise*, fr. L. *-ītia, -itia, -itium, -icium*; **pro-** – L. *prō-*, fr. *prō-*, "before, in front of, for, on behalf of, instead of"; **Prometheus** – L. *Promētheus*, fr. Gk. Προμηθεύς, lit. "forethinker, foreseer"; **prosbul** – Mishnaic Heb. *pᵉrōzbṓl, pᵉrōzbṓl*; для **restaurant** – F.

Areal linguistics studies the diffusion of linguistic features across language boundaries, often within a particular geographic area, resulting in a linguistic area or sprachbund where languages, regardless of their genetic affiliations, share certain linguistic traits due to language contact.

The words "basalt", "bundook", "caecum", "Calliope", "Carmelite", and "Endymion" reflect the rich tapestry of linguistic exchanges in ***the Mediterranean and Near Eastern regions.*** "Basalt", originating from Greek and entering Latin, illustrates the scientific and cultural exchanges between these ancient civilizations. Similarly, "Calliope" (from Greek Καλλιόπη, "the beautiful-voiced one") and "Carmelite" (from Greek Καρμηλΐτης, "an inhabitant of Carmel") show how geographic and mythological names and attributes were shared and adapted across languages in this region.

"Bundook", derived from Arabic but entering Hindi, reflects the historical interactions between South Asia and the Arab world, mainly through trade and the spread of military technology. The term's evolution from "weapon made in Venice" to "missile" and its adoption in South Asia underscores the real impact of these exchanges.

"Fiasco", an Italian word meaning "bottle" and metaphorically "failure", exemplifies how cultural expressions and concepts can spread *within Europe*, influencing other languages with the nuance of failure associated with making a bottle. This reflects Europe's shared cultural and linguistic heritage, where languages borrow from each other extensively.

"Fiber/fibre", from Latin "fibra", and its adoption into French and English, showcases the movement of scientific and everyday vocabulary across European languages, indicative of the trade, scientific exchange, and cultural contact within this area.

The terms "pro-" and "Prometheus", from Latin and Greek, illustrate *how ancient languages have influenced modern European languages through foundational texts, mythology, and scientific terminology.* "Pro-" (meaning "before, for, on behalf of") is a prefix used widely across Indo-European languages, demonstrating the spread of linguistic elements with philosophical, temporal, and spatial significance.

"Prometheus" (from Greek Προμηθεύς, "forethinker, foreseer") encapsulates the transmission of mythological and cultural concepts from ancient to modern times, embedding these ancient stories and characters into the lexicon of modern languages.

"Prosbul" is an example of a term from Mishnaic Hebrew (pĕrōzbṓl, pĕrōzbṓl), reflecting the specific cultural and legal concepts *within the Jewish community* and how they have been preserved or adapted over time. This showcases the preservation of religious and legal terminology within a specific cultural context.

The analysis from an areal perspective underscores the complex web of linguistic exchanges and the diffusion of linguistic features across language boundaries, driven by historical migrations, trade, conquests, and cultural exchanges. These words exemplify how languages within some geographical regions or spheres of cultural influence share standard features, reflecting a shared human heritage that transcends linguistic and national boundaries.

3.2.6 System-Structural Principle

During the formative years of modern lexicographical science, the terms "system" and "structure" occupied a central place in their interests, becoming somewhat of the critical words of contemporary linguistics (Concepts of "System", "Structure"). The lexical composition of any language constitutes a complex system that has emerged over centuries of historical development and is characterized by systematicity, multifunctionality, variability, diachronic changeability, and the ability to transform at all levels of its linguistic structure (Gamkrelidze 1988, p. 145). The complexity of the linguistic system demonstrates, on the one hand, the similarity of elements by their essence and external features and their manifestation, and on the other hand, their distinction. The foundation of the system's significance is created by identities and differences in their totality and interaction with each other as a whole (Chumak 2013, p. 529).

The word "system" in the "Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language" has five meanings that can be applied to the description of language: 1) order of arrangement; 2) form of organization structure; 3) a set of elements united by a standard feature, purpose; 4) a set of principles of a particular doctrine; 5) structure, system, unity of regularly arranged and functioning parts (SUM 1978, vol. 9, p. 203).

In language studies, in addition to the term "system", the term "structure" is also widely used, even to conflate these concepts due to a lack of deep understanding of their essence. The term "structure" was introduced into linguistic science by the Prague Linguistic Circle representatives and denoted the language system's internal relations among its constituent elements and parts. V. I. Kodukhov considers the concept of a system to be broader, encompassing the entire language. The structure of a language, however, comprises only relations, and therefore, the structure is a component, one of the system's characteristics. O. S. Melnychuk defined these terms as the same property of language but considered in two aspects – from the side of the constituent parts that form a totality (system) and from the side of the totality that is divided into constituent parts and is organized in a certain way (structure) (Concepts of "System", "Structure").

The level of systemic organization, on the one hand, is effective and appropriate in cases where "it is necessary to characterize/describe/create the object under study or being designed as something whole, complex and about which it is impossible to get a simple conception" (Tarnavska 2011, p. 130). On the other hand, it implies the presentation of information about the register unit as an element of a lexicographical type, under which Yu. D. Apresyan understands "a group of lexemes with a certain number of properties that coincide", which allows tracing quite general linguistic rules, including semantic, pragmatic, communicative, prosodic, in dictionary entries (Apresyan 1995, p. 389).

The analyzed factual material in CEDEL gives every reason to say that it has a system-structural organization of the construction of dictionary articles (Peshchak 1990, p. 158–159; Shirokov 1998, p. 123–124), the model of which we will try to present (see Table 3.2.6):

Table 3.2.6. System-Structural Organization of a Dictionary Entry in A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

The Zone of Headword	The Zone of Etymology

1. The headword.
2. Semantic development of the headword
  – semantization of the headword, or registered word ("nominal" and "real" interpretations/definitions);
  – change in meaning in the synchronic section.
3. Bibliography of the most important literature on etymology:
  – a list of lexicographical sources.
4. The form of material presentation:
  – a system of special notes/dictionary remarks;
  – illustrative material;
  – formulas;
  – signs/symbols;
  – numbers.
	1. The headword.
	2. Etymological character of the headword.
	3. The history of the headword.
	4. Chronological development of the headword.
	5. Purely etymological information:
	  – experience in reconstructing the registered word, recording etymons of registered words (reconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms) with their original meanings or their bases at various stages of development of the respective language, starting from the latest to the oldest);
	  – genetically related and etymologically connected counterparts in other Indo-European languages;
	  – Indo-European root or joint base of the registered word.
	6. Bibliography of the most important literature on etymology:
	  – a list of used sources (guides, journals, textbooks, manuals);
	  – a list of lexicographic sources.
	7. Semantic development of the registered word: change in meaning in the diachronic section.
	8. The form of material organization: within a family, within a group.
	9. The form of material presentation: a system of special notes/dictionary remarks, comments/clarifications, illustrative material, and abbreviations.

From Table 3.2.6, it is evident that the compilers of CEDEL adhere to the principle of systematicity, which is reflected in the organization and correlation of 1) the content of the left, or registered, part of the dictionary entry, i.e., the construction of the headword field zone (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57), performing the function of a representative of the form (expression plan) of the registered word (Peshchak 1990, p. 13), and 2) the content of the right, or interpretative, part

of the dictionary entry, i. e., the construction of the zone of etymology (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57), corresponding to its etymological characterization (content plan) (Peshchak 1990, p. 13), between which, in turn, non-linear, i. e., paradigmatic relationships are observed.

3.2.7   Principle of Historisism

The historicism principle in linguistics and orthography emphasizes the importance of historical context and development in understanding and explaining the characteristics of a language and its writing system. Historicism, as a broader philosophical approach, asserts that every event, idea, or cultural phenomenon must be understood within its specific historical context. When applied to linguistics, this principle underlines how historical events, cultural exchanges, and evolutionary processes have shaped languages over time.

Critical aspects of the principle of historicism in linguistics and orthography include:

Historical Evolution: Recognizing that languages and their orthographies evolve, influenced by social, political, and technological changes. This includes pronunciation, grammar, and spelling changes, which are documented and studied to understand the language's development.

Etymological Roots: Paying attention to the origins of words, including their phonetic, morphological, and semantic shifts. This aspect involves tracing the ancestry of words back through time, often revealing connections between different languages and cultures.

Orthographic Changes: Understanding that the spelling and writing systems of languages also evolve, reflecting changes in phonology, borrowing of foreign terms, and standardization processes. The principle of historicism helps explain why certain archaic spellings or conventions persist even when they no longer match the contemporary pronunciation or linguistic rules.

Cultural and Historical Influences: Acknowledging that languages do not exist in a vacuum but are deeply intertwined with the cultures and histories of their speakers. Historical events such as conquests, migrations, and the spread of religions profoundly impact language vocabulary, syntax, and orthographies.

Language Contact: Considering the effects of language contact, where languages influence each other through trade, colonization, or proximity. This can lead to adopting loanwords, grammatical structures, and even scripts integrated into the receiving language's orthography.

The analyzed data material also allowed defining the scope of lexicographical information involved in the microstructures of CEDEL, i. e., *the zonal organization of data in dictionary entries* (Apresyan 2009, vol. 1, p. 214), particularly in

filling <u>the zone of etymology</u>, which provides grounds to speak about the individual specificity of the publication compared to other etymological dictionaries of English or any other language (Ibid.).

The historical note (the principle of historicism) is traced <u>in The zone of etymology</u>, where linguistic (etymological) facts about the registered words are presented, which, on the one hand, remain "the subject of historical examination" (Paul 1960, p. 25), and on the other hand, serve for any user of the respective etymological dictionary as "a possible result of the change of its previous state" (Semchynskyi 2001, p. 21), i.e., it "acknowledges the development of language over time, which occurs naturally, according to laws that describe not only the change of one form for another but also the specific appearance they acquire" (Toporov 1990, p. 486). For example:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl – A hybrid coined by the German chemist Justus von Liebig (1803–73) in 1839 fr. L. *acētum*; **deontology** – Coined by the English philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832) in 1826 fr. Gk. δέον.

Analyzing the terms "acetyl" and "deontology" through the principle of historicism involves examining how these terms emerged within their specific historical, cultural, and intellectual contexts, reflecting broader trends in science, philosophy, and language development during their respective periods.

The term **"acetyl"** was coined by the German chemist Justus von Liebig in 1839, a period marked by rapid advancements in chemistry. The 19th century was a time of significant scientific discovery and innovation, with chemistry evolving into a disciplined science with its terminology and classifications. The hybrid term "acetyl" derives from the Latin "acetum", meaning vinegar, reflecting the growing understanding of organic compounds and the need for a specialized vocabulary to describe these newly discovered chemical entities. Liebig's contribution to chemistry was monumental in terms of his scientific discoveries and his role in establishing chemistry as a modern science. The creation of the term "acetyl" exemplifies how scientific language expands and adapts to accommodate discoveries, embedding traces of the time's linguistic, cultural, and intellectual heritage.

"Deontology" was coined by the English philosopher J. Bentham in 1826, from the Greek "δέον" (deon), meaning "duty". J. Bentham introduced this term in the context of the Enlightenment and its aftermath, emphasizing reason, individualism, and a reevaluation of moral and ethical frameworks. Bentham, a leading figure in the development of utilitarianism, sought to create a systematic and rational foundation for ethics. The coining of "deontology" reflects the intellectual currents of the time, particularly the search for a moral philosophy grounded in universal principles and the rational assessment of right and wrong.

This term not only signifies Bentham's contribution to ethical philosophy but also illustrates how new concepts in philosophy often necessitate the creation of new vocabulary to articulate them effectively.

It should be mentioned that **"acetyl"** and **"deontology"** are products of their times, encapsulating the spirit of inquiry and the expansion of knowledge characteristic of the 19th century. The creation of these terms by leading figures in their respective fields highlights the interplay between language, science, and philosophy. It shows how linguistic innovation is often driven by advancements in human thought and understanding, necessitating new words to describe concepts that emerge from these intellectual endeavors.

From the perspective of historicism, "acetyl" and "deontology" serve as linguistic markers of the progress of human knowledge. They reflect the historical contexts in which they were coined, illustrating how language evolves in response to advances in science and philosophy. These terms embody the intellectual legacy of the 19th century, a period of significant transformation in how humans understood the natural world and their own moral and ethical frameworks.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): Cedric – This name, which was first used by Walter Scott ("Cedric the Saxon" is one of the characters in Ivanhoe) prob. stands for OE. *Cedric* and owes its form to a mistake of Scott's.

The name "Cedric", popularized by Sir Walter Scott through his novel "Ivanhoe", provides an intriguing case study in the development of personal names and the influence of literature on language. W. Scott introduced "Cedric the Saxon" as a critical character, and it is believed that he intended to reference or revive an Old English name. However, it is suggested that the form "Cedric" resulted from a mistake on Scott's part, possibly a misinterpretation or creative adaptation of an actual Old English name.

This incident highlights several key points regarding the principle of historicism and its application to linguistic phenomena:

First, W. Scott's novels played a significant role in the romantic revival of the Middle Ages, bringing elements of medieval culture and history into the popular imagination of the 19th century. The introduction of "Cedric" illustrates how literature can exert a powerful influence on language, including creating or popularizing personal names. Second, W. Scott's work often blended historical fact with fiction, demonstrating the impact of historical imagination on linguistic innovation. The mistake that led to the formation of "Cedric" suggests a creative process informed by W. Scott's interpretation of medieval English culture and language, even if it resulted in an anachronistic or inaccurate representation. Third, the supposed error in forming "Cedric" underscores how personal names are transmitted and transformed across time and cultures. Names can undergo significant changes in form and meaning due to misinterpretation, creative

adaptation, or typographical errors. Once introduced into the linguistic eco-system, these new forms can become entrenched and gain a life independent of their original sources. Fourth, the Impact of Popular Culture on Naming Trends: Following the publication of "Ivanhoe", the name "Cedric" gained popularity as a given name in English-speaking countries, illustrating how literature and popular culture can directly influence naming trends. This phenomenon is not unique to "Cedric" but can be seen with other names inspired by literary or cultural works, highlighting the symbiotic relationship between language and culture.

The story of "Cedric" from "Ivanhoe" exemplifies historicism in linguistic development by showing how historical narratives, even when inaccurately rendered, can shape linguistic practices and naming conventions. It reflects the ongoing dialogue between past and present, where historical imagination and cultural production continuously inform and reshape language.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): bundook – Hind., fr. Arab. *búnduq*, "missile", orig. "weapon made in Venice", fr. *Bunduqīta^h*, the Arabic name of Venice, the city once so famous for its manufacture of cross-bows and small arms. This etymology is corroborated by the circumstance that *bunduqīta^h* means also "musket, rifle". Cp. also *Al-Banduqānī*, "the man of the crossbow", a surname of the caliph Harun-al-Rashid; **caecum** – L., neut. of the adj. *caecus*, "blind", in ML. *colon caecum*, "blind gut", a medical term traceable to the definition of the blind gut as τοῦ ἐντέρου τυφλόντι (lit. "some blind part of the intestine"), given by Aristotle in his word De partibus animalium, 3, 14; **Carmelite** – The mendicant order of the Carmelites owes its name to the circumstance that about 1210 Berthold, a crusader from Calabria, and ten of his companions, became hermits on Mount Carmel; **Endymion** – According to the opinion of several scholars *Endymion* was orig. worshiped as a solar deity and his name is a personification of the Setting Sun Sinking into the Sea; **fiasco** – This sense development is prob. due to the fact that the Venetian glass-makers used only perfectly flawless material for the articles manufactured by them. If in the course of their work the glass showed any flaw, they set it aside to make of it a *fiasco*, a common bottle or flask; **restaurant** – F. – Boulanger opened the first restaurant in Paris (Rue des Poulies) in 1765 and wrote over the entrance the Latin words *Venite ad me omnes qui stomach laboratis et ego vos restaurabo* ("Come to me ye all that suffer from stomach and I will restore you").

The etymologies of "bundook", "caecum", "Carmelite", "Endymion", "fiasco", and "restaurant" reveal the multifaceted ways in which words and names reflect and preserve historical, cultural, and conceptual developments. Each term encapsulates a story that bridges linguistic evolution with social, technological,

religious, and artistic innovations, providing insight into cultural exchange and transformation dynamics.

The journey of **"bundook"** from the Arabic "búnduq" (meaning "missile" and originally "weapon made in Venice") to its meaning in Hindi showcases the global networks of trade, warfare, and cultural exchange. The term's derivation from "Bunduqītah", the Arabic name for Venice, underscores the city's historical significance in arms manufacturing. This linguistic trace not only highlights the historical connections between the Arab world and Venice but also illustrates how specific cultural and technological associations can be embedded within language, reflecting broader historical narratives and exchanges.

"Caecum" derives from Latin, where it is the neuter form of "caecus" ("blind"), reflecting medical terminology's reliance on descriptive Latin phrases. Evolution is grounded in ancient medical theory, as evidenced by Aristotle's reference to a "blind part of the intestine". This illustrates how scientific and medical language often preserves ancient knowledge and theories, serving as a conduit through which historical understandings of the human body are transmitted to the present.

The name of the **Carmelite** order traces back to the early 13th century when Berthold, a Calabrian crusader, and his companions became hermits on Mount Carmel. This etymology reflects the interplay between religious practice, historical events (such as the Crusades), and geographical location in forming religious identities and denominations. The Carmelites' name is a lasting testament to the historical circumstances of their origin, embodying the confluence of faith, history, and place.

The association of **Endymion** with the setting sun sinking into the sea and his original worship as a solar deity reveals the deep connections between language, mythology, and natural phenomena. The etymology of Endymion as a personification of a celestial event underscores how ancient cultures sought to understand and narrate the world around them, embedding these interpretations into their languages and myths.

The term **"fiasco"** illustrates how specific practices within artisanal cultures can influence language. Originating from the Venetian glass-making tradition, where flawed glass would be repurposed into ordinary bottles or flasks, "fiasco" metaphorically came to denote failure. This etymological development highlights the intricate ways language evolves in response to cultural practices, capturing human activity's literal and figurative dimensions.

The origin of **"restaurant"** in the context of Boulanger's establishment in Paris and the motto "Venite ad me omnes qui stomach laboratories et ego vos restaurant" demonstrates how innovations in social and culinary practices can give rise to new linguistic forms. The term "restaurant", encapsulating the idea of

restoration through food, reflects the changing dynamics of public life, sociality, and dining in the modern era.

These etymologies offer a window into the dynamic interplay between language, history, culture, and society, revealing how words carry layers of human experience, knowledge, and innovation. They exemplify the principle of historicism by showing how linguistic developments are intimately connected to their historical contexts, serving as markers of human creativity and adaptation across time.

3.2.8   Principle of Periodization / Chronological Development.

The Principle of Periodization refers to dividing linguistic or historical developments into distinct periods or eras. This methodological approach helps scholars and researchers understand the evolution of languages, dialects, and writing systems by identifying significant changes or milestones that mark different stages of development.

In linguistics and orthography, periodization can be crucial for several reasons:

Historical Evolution: By categorizing the development of a language or its writing system into periods, researchers can better analyze how phonetic, grammatical, and orthographic elements have changed over time. This can include shifts from Old to Middle to Modern in English or French.

Technological and Cultural Influences: Periodization allows scholars to link linguistic changes to historical contexts, including technological innovations (like the printing press) or cultural movements (such as the Renaissance), which have significantly impacted language standardization and the adoption of specific orthographic conventions.

Sociopolitical Changes: Dividing history into periods can also highlight how sociopolitical events, such as conquests, colonization, or national reforms, influence language policy, script adoption, or the status of dialects and languages within a society.

Comparative Studies: Periodization facilitates comparative studies between different languages or dialects by providing a temporal framework for analysis. This can help identify parallel developments or unique divergences in the evolution of closely related languages.

Educational Application: In teaching languages, especially those with long historical records, periodization can help learners understand the historical underpinnings of modern usage, spelling, and grammar, making the learning process more contextually rich and meaningful.

In the process of analysis of dictionary entries, it was established that the construction of the etymological characteristics of individual headwords was considered by the compilers of CEDEL, taking into account **the principle of periodization, or chronological development**, presented <u>in the zone of etymology</u>, where, firstly, the etymological nature of register units is specified. Secondly, all their forms and meanings at different stages of the development of the corresponding language are presented.

The periodization of the data provided offers a glimpse into the evolution of English vocabulary from OE through ME and into modern usage. This analysis illuminates the linguistic changes over time, reflecting England's broader historical, social, and cultural transformations. The transition from OE to ME, particularly from the 5th century with the Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain to the late 15th century, marks a significant period in the development of the English language, influenced by various factors including invasions, the Norman Conquest, and changes in society and governance.

<u>English:</u>

anent – ME. *anent*, *anentis*, fr.OE. *onefen*, *onemn*, "near to, close by", orig. "on a level with", fr. *an-*, *on-*, "on", and *efen*, "even, equal": Evolving from OE "onefen" or "onemn" ("near to, close by"), reflecting spatial concepts in OE, to ME "anent" or "anentis", indicating a shift towards prepositional usage in ME, showcasing linguistic simplification and the shift in prepositional phrases.

    calends, kalends – ME. *kalendes*, fr. OE. *calend*, "month": originating from the Latin "calendae", then appearing in OE as "calend" ("month"), and transitioning to ME "kalendes", this term exemplifies the integration of Latin, mainly ecclesiastical and administrative, into OE and ME vocabulary, a reflection of the Christianization of England and Latin's prestige.

    calf – ME. *calf*, *kalf*, fr. OE. *cealf*: the continuity of "calf" from OE "cealf" to ME "calf, kalf" illustrates the stability of specific core vocabulary related to everyday life, animals, and agriculture, despite the vast linguistic changes occurring in other domains;

    Cedric – OE. *Cedric:* Allegedly deriving from OE "Cedric", though primarily known from Sir Walter Scott's invention, this example highlights the role of literature and historical imagination in shaping perceptions of linguistic and cultural heritage;

    enough – ME. *inogh*, *enogh*, *enouh*, fr. OE. *genōh:* From OE "genōh" to ME variations like "inogh", "enogh", and "enouh", demonstrating phonetic and orthographic changes over time, as well as the simplification and standardization of language;

    gang – ME. *gang*, "going; passage", fr. OE. *gang*, "going, passage, channel": this term's journey from OE "gang" ("going, passage, channel") to ME "gang"

("going; passage") shows the maintenance of certain basic verbs and nouns related to movement, which remain relatively stable due to their fundamental nature in human experience;

may – ME. *mai*, *mei*, fr. OE. *mæg*, "I am able" (inf. *magan*, "to be able"): from OE "mæg" ("I am able") and its infinitive "magan" ("to be able") to ME "mai", "mei", reflecting changes in modal verb usage and the phonetic evolution from OE to ME, highlighting shifts in auxiliary and modal constructions;

pan – ME. *panne*, fr. OE. *panne:* maintaining its form from OE "panne" to ME "panne", this term indicates preserving everyday objects in the lexicon, which often see less change than more abstract terms;

penny – ME. *peni*, fr. OE. *penig*, *pening*, *pending:* from OE "penig", "pening", "pending" to ME "peni", showcasing the evolution of monetary and economic terminology in response to social and economic developments.

The transition from OE to ME reflects broader historical transitions, including the impact of the Viking invasions and the Norman Conquest. These events introduced new linguistic elements into the English lexicon, particularly from Norse and Norman French, influencing English's phonological, grammatical, and lexical development. The periodization from OE to ME also reflects the gradual shift towards a more standardized form of English, influenced by changes in governance, society, and technology, such as the introduction of the printing press in the late 15th century, which would eventually contribute to the development of Early Modern English.

Latin:
caecum – L., neut. of the adj. *caecus*, "blind", in ML. *colon caecum*, "blind gut".

The term "caecum", originating from Latin and explicitly being the neuter form of the adjective "caecus" ("blind"), demonstrates a fascinating intersection of linguistic evolution, medical terminology, and anatomical understanding. The phrase "colon caecum", meaning "blind gut", used in Medieval Latin, highlights the historical development of anatomical and medical language as an understanding of human physiology evolved. This term offers insight into how their perceived functions or characteristics often influenced the naming of body parts.

The progression from "caecus" to "caecum" reflects a broader trend in the formation of medical terminology, where Latin and later Greek played foundational roles. Latin, as the lingua franca of the Roman Empire and subsequently of scholarly and scientific writing in medieval Europe, provided a rich source of terminology for the emerging field of medicine. Using "caecus" to describe a part of the intestine that appears to end unthinkingly (the caecum is a pouch connected to the junction of the small and large intestines) exemplifies how descriptive physical characteristics were crucial in the naming process.

The adoption and adaptation of "caecus" into "caecum" for medical use during the medieval period also reflect the transmission of knowledge from antiquity to the Middle Ages. Medical texts and knowledge from Greek and Roman sources were preserved, studied, and expanded upon in medieval monasteries and later universities. The term's preservation and use in Medieval Latin underscore the continuity and respect for classical sources that characterized medieval scholarship, especially in medicine.

The designation of the caecum as the "blind gut" underscores early anatomical observations and the empirical approach to understanding human anatomy that began to flourish in this period. It hints at the observational nature of early medical practice, where anatomical terms often arose from direct visual and practical experience with the body long before modern diagnostic tools.

Today, the term "caecum" remains in use, retaining its historical roots while being integrated into the more systematic and standardized medical terminology that has developed with advances in medical science. The persistence of such terms attests to the enduring influence of Latin on the language of science and medicine. It also serves as a reminder of the historical depth of medical knowledge, tracing back through centuries of observation, learning, and naming practices that connect contemporary medicine with its ancient past.

"Caecum" exemplifies the interplay between language, medicine, and history. It shows how terms evolve to reflect the physical realities they describe and the cultural contexts in which they are used. The historical layering present in medical terminology not only aids in understanding the development of medical science but also enriches the linguistic and cultural heritage of the scientific community.

In addition, in purely etymological information, the principle of periodization can be traced in the representation of genetically related and/or etymologically related to headwords of counterparts of other Indo-European languages.

As we can see, the principle of periodization demonstrates different periods of development and formation of any language. For example: the English language: 1) the Old English period (OE. – Old English) (V–XI centuries); 2) the Middle English period (ME. – Middle English) (XI–XIV centuries); 3) the New English period (ModE. – Modern English) (XVII–XXI centuries); Latin language: 1) Old Latin period (OL. – Old Latin); 2) Middle Latin period (ML. – Medieval Latin); 3) Neo-Latin period (ModL. – Modern Latin), etc.

3.3   *Linguocognitive-Synergetic Principles* to Constructing Microstructures in A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein)

3.3.1   Principle of Fractality

The modern cognitive-synergetic (neo-functional) vector of illuminating all aspects of human knowledge about language in general and its fragments demonstrates explicitly the development of an interdisciplinary approach based on methods of nonlinear dynamics, fractal geometry, and the theory of self-organization (Babich, Kremlev 2010). Such a statement provides all the reasons to assert that all objects in the material world are *fractals*, regardless of whether a cloud or an oxygen molecule (Dovhan 2011, p. 89).

The term "fractal" (from Latin *fractus* – broken; Eng. *fractional* – fragmentary) was introduced into scientific circulation in 1975 by mathematician B. B. Mandelbrot to describe a series of objects and phenomena that do not have a defined linear size (see more: Barnsley 2000; Mandelbrot 1975, 1983). The birth of fractal geometry is commonly associated with the 1977 publication of B. B. Mandelbrot's book "The Fractal Geometry of Nature", in which he offered the most general definition of a fractal ("a certain structure that consists of self-similar substructures") and algorithms for constructing various types of fractals as irregular and self-identical (self-similar) structures (see more: Barnsley 2000; Mandelbrot 1975, 1983). According to him, it was *fractal geometry* or *the geometry of nature*. The aim of this theory was the analysis of broken, wrinkled, and fuzzy forms; the mathematician used the term fractal because it presupposed the imperfection, incompleteness, and fractionality of these forms (cited by: Dovhan 2011, p. 88–89). A fractal is a phenomenon that exists and declares itself dynamically; it is a process. The properties of fractals as an objective process change within the spectrum from apparent regularity to chaos (Dovhan 2011, p. 89).

In the modern world, the term "fractal" is mainly understood to mean a geometric figure that has the property of self-similarity (in mathematical theory, self-similar objects are those that precisely or approximately coincide with parts of themselves: the whole has the same shape as one or several of its parts), i. e., consisting of several parts, each of which is similar to the whole figure in its entirety. Invariance concerning scale change is one form of self-similarity, where at any magnification, at least one part of the central figure similar to the whole figure can be identified. In a broader sense, fractals are understood as sets of points in Euclidean space with an acceptable metric dimension (in the sense of A. S. Besicovitch or F. Hausdorff) or a metric dimension strictly more significant than the topological one. Simply put, a fractal can be defined as a complex

geometric figure, a fragment repeated several times, changing its size (cited by: Dovhan 2011, p. 87–88).

The generalization of dictionary information as modeling the content plan of language (Gorodetsky 1983, p. 6) is based on **the principle of fractality** (Mandelbrot 1979), i.e., the construction of dictionary entries was carried out by organizing a fractal model (What does the word "fractal" mean), which is a particular geometric figure that has its degree of self-similarity (The Charm of Self-Similarity). In the course of the analysis conducted, it was found that this fractal has the form of a circle, at the center of which are two other circles (resembling a button with two holes) – two bifurcation points (What does the word "fractal" mean) (the zone of headword and the zone of etymology), where the "choice" of the further path of development of the registered word or "selection" of the stages of constructing the iterative process (What does the word "fractal" mean), i.e., the involvement of an appropriate number of parameter sets (Karaulov 1981, p. 73–74) (categories and subcategories) (see fig. 3.3.1.1, 3.3.1.2).

Each of the parameters (Karaulov 1981, p. 73–74), presented in the two zones of dictionary entries, the zone of headword and the zone of etymology, is *nonlinear* and *self-similar* (Mandelbrot 1979) to the entire model of the dictionary entry, which has the same shape as one or several of its categories or subcategories, which, in turn, can precisely or approximately coincide. Meanwhile, new fractal forms do not replicate the old ones but represent variations on given themes. In fractal reality, an inevitable structurally necessary repetition is felt, displacing the original but not its copy (cited by Dovhan 2011, p. 88).

A dictionary entry as a fractal has a hierarchical organization (Mandelbrot 1979), which manifests in the subordination of individual elements of the fractal (dictionary entry) to the whole fractal (dictionary entry) (subcategories to categories, categories to fields, fields to dictionary entries, dictionary entry to the dictionary), a complex form that has different levels of organization at different scales (Babich, Kremlev 2010), i.e. when attention is focused on a particular element. Viewing a dictionary entry at a larger scale reveals new details of the registered word. Increasing the scale of the fractal, which is the accentuation of attention on two bifurcation points (the zone of headword and the zone of etymology (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57)) or their iterations (categories and subcategories), allowed identifying the irregularity of fractals (dictionary entries) in CEDLE, i.e., that the fractal structures of its dictionary entries do not become more straightforward with increased magnification but, on the contrary, have equally complex content at all levels (Principles of Fractality).

In dictionary entries HW⇔ERAN/BW, ΠW⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, cross-links, fuzziness of boundaries, or vagueness of contours (Mandelbrot 1979) are observed, i.e., one dictionary entry acquires another appearance through correlation with a second dictionary entry, the content of which is
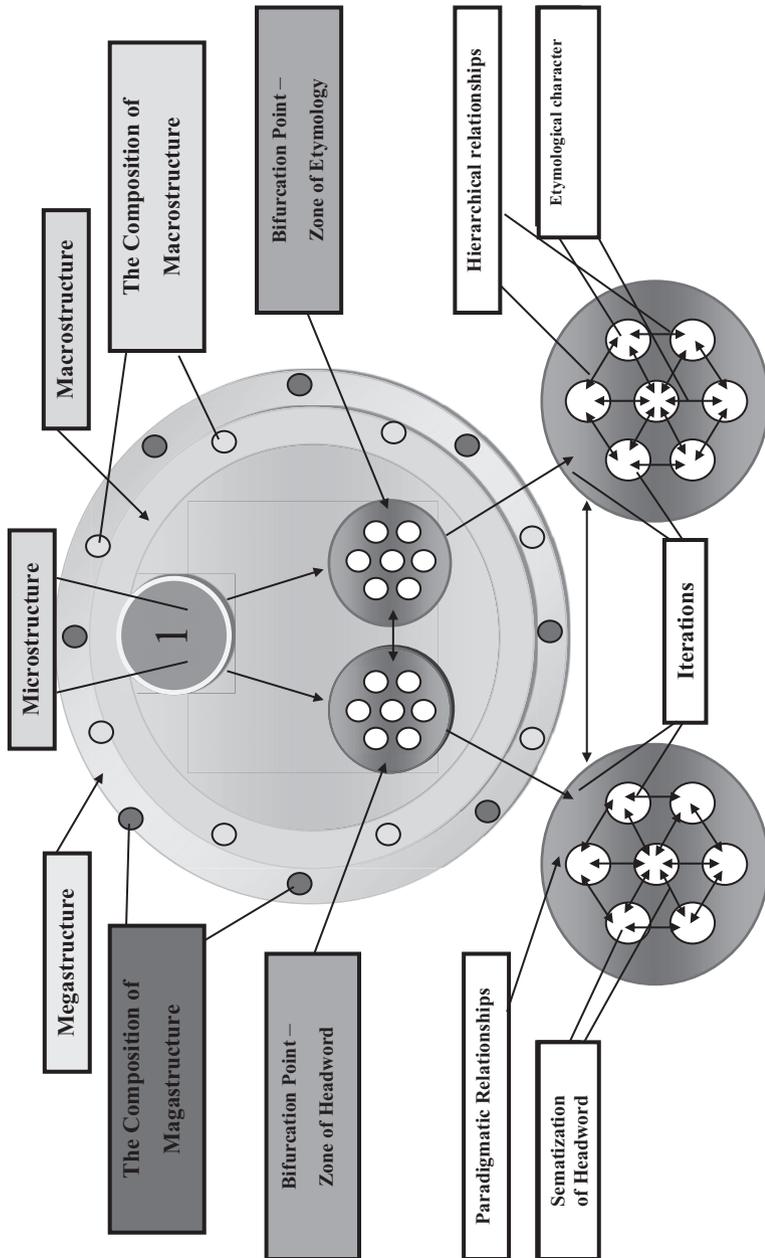
Figure 3.3.1.1. Fractal Model of A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein, Vol. 1–2, 1966–1967)
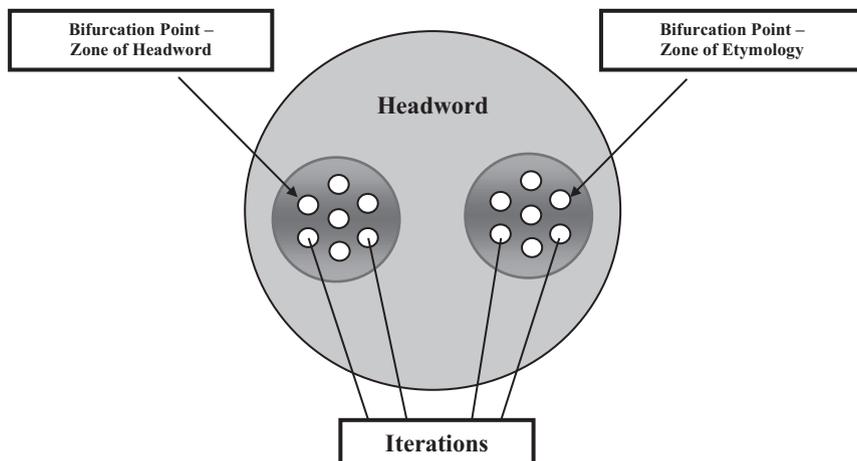
Figure 3.3.1.2. Fractal Model of A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (E. Klein, Vol. 1–2, 1966–1967)

connected with other entries ad infinitum, demonstrating the multilayered nature of the fractal (dictionary entry). Numerous manifestations of this property are reflected in the zone of etymology (Vyvenko 2000, p. 56–57), where the notations "See" and "Cp." – "Compare" is used, through which references are made to the corresponding native/borrowed word, from which, in turn, a reverse reference can be made to this or another word using these notations. For example:

I. WN⇔ERAN/BW: acrid – Cp. **awn, eager, ear** of corn, **edge, egg**, "to urge", **hammer.** Cp. also **Acaena, acantha, acanthion, acantho-, Accipiter, acerb, acescent, acetum, acid, Acipenser, acme, acne, Acocanthera, acor, Acreinae, acrimony, acro-, acroama, acrobat, acropolis, Actaea, Actaeon, aculeate, aculeus, acumen, acus, acute, aglet, agrito, ague, cute, exacerbate, eglantine, griotte, paragon, tetrakis, Thrinax, triakis, vinegar.** Cp. also **mediocre, ocrea, Ocimum, Oxalis, oxy-, oxygen; acronym** – See **name** and cp. **onomato-;** для **besiclometer** – see **beryl.** For the second element see **meter**, "poetica; thythm".

II. NW⇔ERAN/BW: anent – See **on** and **even**, "straight". The final *t* in *anent* is excrescent. Cp. **fornent; calends, kalends** – Cp. **calendar, Calendula, intercalary, conciliate, council.** Cp. also **claim,** v., **clear, ecclesia.** Cp. also **low**, "to make the sound of a cow"; **penny** – For the etymology of L. *pannus* see **pawn**, "pledge", and cp. words there referred to.

III. WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW: basalt – Cp. **basanite; caecum** – Cp. **Caecias, cecity,** and the second element in **pichiciago; Calliope** – See **voice** and cp. **epic, epos; Endymion** – See **adytum** and cp. **Anadyomene; fiasco** – For the etymol. Of It. *fiasco* see **flask;** для **fiber, fibre** – See **file,** "a collection of papers".

Because a fractal is the final result of an infinite procedure, i. e., it is infinite in development (Babych, Kremlev 2010), therefore for those articles where the etymons of their registered words have not yet been established, i. e., not reconstructed forms (archetypes, proforms), is characterized by ***dynamism***, ***the ability to develop*** (Mandelbrot 1979), because at each current step of the iterative process (Babych, Kremlev 2010) new confirmations of etymological hypotheses are needed, which will probably be supplemented over time. For example:

I. WN (WN⇔ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl, acronym, besiclometer, chonolith.

II. NW (NW⇔ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): anent, Cedric, penny.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt, bundook, caecum, Carmelite, Endymion, fiasco, -ise, prosbul, restaurant.

Quantitative calculations of the headwords in CEDEL have revealed dictionary entries whose registered units do not receive etymological illumination (lacking plausible hypotheses and factual confirmations). Among these are: 1) dictionary entries without any evaluation; 2) dictionary entries with the general evaluation of "uncertain", in which both the zone of headword and the zone of etymology are traced, yet the latter only presents derivatives (Derivatives) of their registered words or notations "See" ("look") and "Cp." – "compare", through which references are made to the corresponding native/borrowed word, from which, in turn, a reverse reference can be made to this or another word using these notations.

    E. Klein emphasizes that in almost all etymological dictionaries, it is expected to encounter words with the general statement "unknown origin", even when their etymology can be illuminated without any doubt. Therefore, in most cases, such registered units' etymological characteristics are not provided, even if their origin is known and confirmed (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. IX–X). This is explained by the fact that compilers usually do not introduce assumptions of a subjective nature into etymological dictionaries, which are devoid of any factual confirmations. In the dictionary entries of CEDEL, especially in the zone of etymology, phrases such as "of uncertain etymology", "probably of Oriental origin" are observed (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. X). It is worth noting that in the best case,

such assumptions are presented as possible, but only after the general evaluation of "uncertain" (of imitative origin / of uncertain origin / of unknown origin), as reflected in the dictionary entry with the registered word **fiber, fibre:** F. *fibre*, fr. L. *fibra*, "fiber", which is of uncertain origin.

In the CEDEL registry, **373** such dictionary entries were found: nouns – **282** words; adjectives – **72** words; verbs – **14** words; adverbs – **5** words.

In dictionary entries without any evaluation and in dictionary entries with the general evaluation of "uncertain", typically, *the semanticization of the headwords or registered words* (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 56; Myrolyubov 1982, p. 116; Tabanakova 2001, p. 133), or derivatives of the registered words are provided. For example: **capsize**, tr. and intr. v., to onerturn; to upset. – Of uncertain origin. Derivatives: *capsize*, n., *capsize-al*, n. (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 236); **caw**, n., the natural cry of the crow and raven; intr. v., to utter this cry or imitate it. – Of imitative origin. Cp. **chough** (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, 1966, p. 254); **chap**, also **chop**, n., one of the jaws. – Of uncertain origin (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 267); **cheep**, intr. and tr. v. – Of imitative origin. Derivatives: *cheep*, n., *cheep-er*, n., *cheep-y*, adj., *cheep-i–ly*, adv., *cheep-i-ness*, n. (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 272); **chevin**, n., the chub. – Cp. F. chevanne; of unknown origin (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 274); **chitter**, intr. v. – Of imitative origin. Cp. chatter, twitter (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 278); **Etrurian**, adj. and n., Etruscan. – Formed with suff. -an fr. L. Etrūria, a name of uncertain etymology (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 547); **euchre**, n., a card game. – Of unknown origin. Derivative: *euchre*, tr. v. (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 548), etc.

3.3.2   Principle of Explanatoriness

Explanatoriness, at its current stage of development, is based on the theoretical position that the description and explanation of linguistic phenomena presented in lexicographic sources of a philological type, in general, and etymological dictionaries, in particular, are carried out based on a scientifically evidential basis, which serves as an essential objective scientific-explanatory tool for interpreting dictionary data (Selivanova 2008, p. 38). Consequently, the construction of dictionary entries in such sources is done in "collaboration with a wide range of sciences to create a tool of cognition that no single science can provide to a researcher, but which can be elucidated as a result of the efforts of several sciences" (cited by: Andrianova 2011, p. 70–71).

Considering that *the principle of explanatoriness* (Kubryakova 1994, p. 14) underlies any dictionary entry of a philological type source, it is notable that their compilers, as observed by M. V. Pimenova, strive not only to describe linguistic facts but also to find and formulate exhaustive explanations for them. The researcher emphasizes that explaining such linguistic facts should be brought to the

forefront, pushing the formal description to the background, i.e., in the description-explanation dyad, there should be a shift in emphasis (Pimenova 2011, p. 2). As R. M. Frumkina notes, in such an understanding, "the value of explanation, not just its descriptions, should be emphasized" (Frumkina 1999, p. 11) because if the description is aimed "at comprehending the structure and semantics of linguistic objects" then the explanation is aimed "at clarifying their functioning" (Popova 2002, p. 74–75).

In the process of analyzing dictionary entries, it was established that the principle of explanatoriness (Kubryakova 1994, p. 14) is evident in the illumination of relevant parameters presented in the zone of headword, namely: 1) semantic development of the registered word: semanticization of the headword, or registered word (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 56; Myrolyubov 1982, p. 116; Tabanakova 2001, p. 133) ("nominal" and "real" interpretations/definitions (Casares 1958, p. 18)); changes in meaning in the synchronic cross-section (see below); 2) forms of material presentation: comments/clarifications, illustrative material, formulas, signs/symbols, numbers.

For example, the semantic development of registered words is traced in the inclusion of semanticization of headwords or registered units (Dubichinsky 2008, p. 56; Myrolyubov 1982, p. 116; Tabanakova 2001, p. 133):

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl, n., the radical of acetic acid (…); **acronym**, n., a word formed from the first letters of a series of words (…); **besiclometer**, n., an instrument for measuring the forehead to establish the exact size of the spectacles; **chonolith**, n., a mess of igneous rock (*geol.*); **deontology**, n., the science of moral duty.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): anent, prep., concerning, about; **calends, kalends**, n. pl., the first day of the ancient Roman month; **calf**, n., a young of cow, etc.; **gang**, n., a group of people; **pan**, n., a broad vessel; a band.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): bundook, n., a rifle; **caecum**, n., the blind gut (*anat.*); **Calliope**, n., the Muse presiding over epic poetry (*Greek mythol.*); **Endymion**, n., a beautiful youth loved by the Greek moon goddess Selene (*Greek mythol.*); **fiasco**, n., a complete failure; **inter**, prep., among, between, occurring in Latin phrases occasionally used in English; **-ise**, suff. forming nouns denoting *quality*, *condition* or *function*; **prosbul**, n., a declaration made in court, before the execution of a loan, to the effect that the law requiring the release of debts upon the entrance of the Sabbatical year shall not apply to the loan to be transacted.

Within individual dictionary articles, we observe the following types of interpretations/definitions:

1. **Nominal interpretations/definitions** are interpretations/definitions that indicate the nearest generic concept and an essential feature of the subject that distinguishes it (Casares 1958, p. 18). For example: **besiclometer**, n., an instrument for measuring the forehead to establish the exact size of the spectacles; **caecum**, n., the blind gut (*anat.*); **calf**, n., a young of cow, etc.; **cantata**, n., a musical composition for solo, chorus, etc. (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 233); **deontology**, n., the science of moral duty; **fiasco**, n., a complete failure; **gang**, n., a group of people; **pan**, n., a broad vessel; a band.

2. **Real interpretations/definitions** are interpretations/definitions that reveal the essence and nature of the phenomenon that is characterized (Casares 1958, p. 18). For example: 1) *genetic* seek to explain the signified as the result of its action, which arose (Casares 1958, p. 18): **acetyl**, n., the radical of acetic acid (…); **gash**, tr. v., to cut deeply (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 642); 2) *descriptive* are combined with an indication of the purpose or function (description of the object's shape, properties, etc.) (Casares 1958, c. 18): **acronym**, n., a word formed from the first letters of a series of words (…); **anent**, prep., concerning, about; **bundook**, n., a rifle; **calends, kalends**, n. pl., the first day of the ancient Roman month; **Calliope**, n., the Muse presiding over epic poetry (*Greek mythol.*); **chonolith**, n., a mess of igneous rock (*geol.*); **Diomedes**, n., son of Tydeus and Deipyle, one of the Grecian chiefs in the Trojan war (*Greek mythol.*) (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 451); **Endymion**, n., a beautiful youth loved by the Greek moon goddess Selene (*Greek mythol.*); **mattoid**, n., a person of abnormal mind verging on insanity (CEDEL 1967, vol. 2, p. 949); 3) *theological* reveal the nature of a thing by pointing to the purpose (Casares 1958, c. 18): **fusain**, n., fine charcoal used in drawing (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 631); **inter**, prep., among, between, occurring in Latin phrases occasionally used in English.

The above-mentioned semantics of headwords (Dubychinsky 2008, p. 56; Myrolyubov 1982, p. 116; Tabanakova 2001, p. 133) make it possible to establish *paradigmatic relationships* between headwords and their meanings on the basis of commonality or oppositeness, as evidenced by the following lexical relations: 1) *polysemy* (*multiple meaning*): **furor**, n., 1) craze, rage; 2) general enthusiasm (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 630); 2) *homonymy:* в CEDEL: **calf**[1], n., a young of cow, etc.; **calf**[2], n., the fleshy part of the leg (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 223); **diet**[1], n., a parliamentary assembly (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 446); **diet**[2], n., fare, food (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 446); **gang**[1], intr. v., to go, walk (**dial.**) (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 639); **gang**[2], n., a group of people; **Pan**[1], n., a god of the woods and fields (*Greek mythol.*) (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 1118); **pan**[2], n., a broad vessel; a band; 3) *synonymy:* в CEDEL: **anent**, prep., concerning, about; **bundook**, n., a rifle; **dapper**, adj., neat; smart (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 401); **fiasco**, n., a complete failure; **fraud**,

n., deceit; trickery (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 619); **inter**, prep., among, between; **pan**, n., a broad vessel; a band; 4) *antonymy:* в CEDEL: **fresh**, adj., obtrusive, impudent (*slang*) (CEDEL 1966, vol. 1, p. 621).

In the purely etymological information presented in <u>the zone of etymology</u>, the following parameters are provided (Karaulov 1981, p. 73–74): 1) the experience of reconstructing the registered word – recording the etymons of the registered words (reconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms) with their original meanings or their bases at different stages of development of the respective language, starting from the latest to the oldest); 2) genetically related and etymologically connected counterparts of the registered words in other languages of the Indo-European family; 3) the Indo-European root or joint base.

For example, genetically related and etymologically connected counterparts of the registered words in other languages of the Indo-European family with their meanings, which likely indicate the semantic development of the registered words in a diachronic perspective:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acetyl – fr. L. *acētum*, "vinegar" (see prec. word); **acrid** – L. *ācer* (fem. *ācris*, neut. *ācre*), "sharp, bitter", and *acidus*, "sour", L. *acus*, "needle", *aciēs*, "sharp edge, point, the front of an army, line of battle, battle array", *acuere*, "to sharpen", Oscan *acrid* (= L. *ācriter*), "sharply", Umbr. *per-acri*, "fruitful, fertile" (…).

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): enough – OS. *ginōg*, ON. *gnōgr*, Swed. *nog*, Dan. *nok*, OFris. *enōch*, Du. *genoeg*, OHG. *ginuog*(*i*), MHG. *genuoc*, G. *genug*, Goth. *ganohs*, "enough", OE. *geneah*, OHG. *ginah*, Goth. *ganah*, "it suffices", OI. *aśnṓti*, Avestic *ashnaoiti*, "reaches, arrives at", OI. *náśati*, Avestic *nasaiti*, "reaches", OI. *áṃśaḥ*, "portion, part", Avestic *ąsa-*, "party"; **may** – OS. *mugan*, OFris. *muga*, ON. *mega*, Norw. *moga*, Dan. *maatte*, Swed. *må*, MDu. *moghen*, Du. *mogen*, OHG. *magan*, *mugan*, MHG. *mugen*, *mügen*, G. *mögen*, Goth. *magan*, "to be able", Gk. μῆχος, Dor. μᾶχος, "means, instrument", μηχανή, "means, invention, machine", OSlav. *mogǫ*, *mošti*, "to be able", *moštĭ*, "power; force", OPruss. *massi*, "I can".

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): basalt – Gk. βασανῖτης (λίϑος), fr. Βασάν, "Bashan"; **caecum** – Gk. καικίας, "northeast wind", lit. "the dark one", L. *Aquilō*, "north wind", fr. *aquilus*, "dark", OI. *kēkaraḥ*, "squinting", OIr. *caech*, "one-eyed", MIr. *let-chaech*, "squinting", W. *coeg*, "empty", *coeg-ddall*, "one-eyed", Goth. *haihs*, "one-eyed"; **pro-** – OI. *pára*, "beyond", *prá-*, "before, forward, forth", Gk. πρό, "before", πάρος, "before", παρά, "from beside, against, beyond", περί, "around, about, toward", Goth. *faúra*, "before", OE. *fore*, "before, for, on account of"; **Prometheus** – Gk. Προμηϑεύς, lit.

"forethinker, foreseer"; **restaurant** – F. *restaurant* is pres. part. of *restaurer*, "to restore".

The scientific-evidential, i. e. explanatory, base of relevant linguistic phenomena is being strengthened (Selivanova 2000, p. 35) also with the help of introducing derivatives of registered words, which can be traced mainly in dictionary articles of NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, NW⇔ERAN/BW): **enough** – *enough*, n. and adv.; **gang** – *gang-er*, n.; **pan** – *pan*, tr. and intr. v., *pan-ful*, adj., *pann-er*, n., *pann-ery*, n., presented in the area of <u>the zone of etymology</u>, as well as illustrative material expressed by word combinations, exemplifications, typical linguistic contexts of the functioning of one or another lexeme (Hnatiuk 2008, p. 305), presented in the form of presenting the material both <u>in the zone of headword</u> and <u>in the zone of etymology</u>. For example:

I. WN (WN⇎ERAN/BW, WN⇔ERAN/BW): acronym, n., a word formed from the first letters of a series of words, as *UNO*, from *United Nations Organization*.

II. NW (NW⇎ERAN/BW, ПW⇔ERAN/BW): Cedric – "Cedric the Saxon" is one of the characters in Ivanhoe.

III. WBELOL (WBELOL⇎ERAN/BW, WBELOL⇔ERAN/BW): caecum – L., neut. of the adj. *caecus*, "blind", in ML. *colon caecum*, "blind gut", a medical term traceable to the definition of the blind gut as τοῦ ἐντέρου τυφλόντι (lit. "some blind part of the intestine"); **fiasco** – It., lit. "bottle", in the phrase *far fiasco*, "to make a bottle; to fail"; **inter**, prep., among, between, occurring in Latin phrases occasionally used in English, as *inter alia*, "among other things"; **restaurant** – F. – Boulanger opened the first restaurant in Paris (Rue des Poulies) in 1765 and wrote over the entrance the Latin words *Venite ad me omnes qui stomach laboratis et ego vos restaurabo* ("Come to me ye all that suffer from stomach and I will restore you").

3.3.3 Principle of Expansionism

The traditional linguistic theoretical contribution is considered to include **the principle of expansionism** (from Latin *expansio* – expansion, spreading) (Kubryakova 1995, p. 207). O. O. Selivanova notes that "manifestations of expansionism in linguistics include the creation of marginal sciences (sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, linguoculturology, ethnopsycholinguistics, neuropsycholinguistics, linguistic philosophy, cognitive and computer linguistics), the emergence of new branches of linguistics that consider a certain non-lin-

guistic aspect of linguistic issues (logical semantics, the theory of speech acts, linguopragmatics, etc.), the expansion of the scope of traditional linguistic disciplines (for example, the convergence of word formation with the theory of nomination, onomasiology, cognitive linguistics, etc.), as well as the application of knowledge from other sciences to explain and understand the object of linguistics through the creation of integrative research programs" (Selivanova 2008, p. 36–37).

The principle of explanatoriness is typically reinforced through the principle of expansionism (Kubryakova 1995, p. 207) and is observed both in the zone of headword: **Laodicean**, adj., 1) pertaining to Laodicea; lukewarm in religion (in allusion to Revelations III, 14–16); 2) n., an inhabitant of Laodicea; one lukewarm in religion; in the zone of etymology: **penny** – B. Schier in Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache und Literatur, 72, 311 ff.; **Prometheus** – see Hofmann, EWG., p. 284 – Hofmann J. B. Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Griechischen / J. B. Hoffman. – München, 1930; **prosbul** – see Marcus Jastrow's Dictionary, II, p. 1218. All sources in dictionary entries can be found in the following CEDEL sections: 1) *Abbreviation of Books and Journals Frequently Referred* to and 2) *Other Literature Consulted.*

In the process of analysis of dictionary articles, it was established that the involvement of data from such related fields as *ethnography/ethnology*, *history*, and *medicine* strengthens the credibility and probability of the given hypotheses of the origin of words, as evidenced by *ethnographic* and *historical* (Partington J. R. The History of Chemistry / J. R. Partington. – London, 1961–1962), as well as *medical reference books* (Skinner H. A. The Origin of Medical Terms / Henry Alan Skinner. – 2nd ed. – Baltimore, 1961).

Conclusions to Chapter 3

Chapter 3 explores the linguocognitive-synergetic principles that underpin the microstructure of "A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" by E. Klein. This analysis reveals a sophisticated interplay between traditional lexicographic methodologies and innovative approaches tailored to etymological inquiry. The chapter provides valuable insights into the dictionary's organizational strategies, linguistic foundations, and pragmatic objectives, showcasing its significance as a scholarly and practical resource.

The dictionary adheres to the principle of succession and traditionality, drawing upon the methodological heritage of contemporary etymological dictionaries while enriching entries with special notes, symbols, and illustrative materials. This commitment to tradition ensures reliability and depth, making

the dictionary a pivotal reference for understanding the etymology of the English language.

Organizational principles blend alphabetical ordering with nesting, providing comprehensive documentation of derivatives, phonetic variants, and word-formation processes. This structure facilitates an intuitive exploration of words' evolutionary paths, enhancing the user experience for philologists, specialists, and general readers.

The principle of pragmatism governs the dictionary's design, striking a balance between theoretical rigor and practical utility. It caters to a diverse audience, emphasizing headwords' chronological development and etymological character. This pragmatic approach underscores the dictionary's role in bridging scholarly inquiry with broader linguistic curiosity.

Linguistic principles form the cornerstone of the dictionary's methodology: (a) *the Phonetic Principle* underscores the significance of the relationship between speech sounds and their orthographic representations, which is essential for tracing the historical and contemporary spelling of words; (b) *the Semantic Principle* delves into the complexities of semantic evolution, offering a nuanced view of how meanings develop and transform over time; (c) *the Morphological Principle* highlights word formation mechanisms, illustrating the dynamism and creativity inherent in the English lexicon; (d) *the Genetic Principle* examines words' etymological roots and their relationships within and beyond the Indo-European family, tracing the linguistic lineage of the English vocabulary; (e) *the Areal Principle* considers the geographical and cultural spread of linguistic features, reflecting on the impact of language contact on lexical convergence and divergence; (f) *the System-Structural Principle* emphasizes the structured nature of language, where each entry is interconnected within the more extensive system, contributing to the dictionary's coherence and comprehensiveness.

It should also be noted that such principles elucidate the multifaceted approach to constructing the etymological entries in Klein's dictionary. By weaving together traditional and linguocognitive-synergetic methodologies, the dictionary achieves a remarkable synthesis of depth and accessibility. It is a testament to the rich tapestry of the English language, offering readers a detailed roadmap of its etymological landscape and affirming the dictionary's invaluable contribution to etymological studies.

Conclusions

The theoretical and methodological concept of the monograph is based on the following premises: 1) the primary object of study in lexicography, and at its current stage of development, remains the dictionary, which, in terms of its compositional construction, consists of four levels: megastructure, macrostructure, microstructure, and mediostructure; 2) the microstructure is constituted by the dictionary entry – a complete, independent unit of the dictionary that meets its objectives and combines information about the lexeme as an element of a particular word category, focusing on its (lexemic) individual characteristics on one hand, and on the other; 3) the work of a lexicographer is based on an established lexicographic tradition, characterized by five fundamental principles of generalizing dictionary information as strategies for lexicographic construction of the language content plan: the inheritance (sequence) of lexicographical works, subjectivism, pragmatism, the principle of normativity in the selection and presentation of lexis, and the principle of theoretical (latest information) and practical aspects of lexicographical works; 4) a particular linguistic reference system is the etymological dictionary, where the dictionary entry collects information about the genetic connections (etymology) of words of a specific language or group of related languages; 5) the dictionary entry in an etymological dictionary, or the etymological entry, includes the headword field and the etymology field, which are constructed in a certain way according to the aforementioned principles, as well as those characteristic of the lexicographic tradition of a specific language, in this case, English.

To uncover the principles of constructing dictionary entries in etymological dictionaries of English ("A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" (chief ed. E. Klein) – CEDLE), the monograph developed a comprehensive research methodology that included the methods and analytical techniques relevant to such a research procedure. As a tertium comparationis in the study, the headword field area and the etymology field area were chosen, comparing which in CEDLE revealed the nature of 1) lexicographic, 2) purely

linguistic, and 3) linguo-cognitive-synergetic principles of constructing dictionary entries in CEDLE.

The construction of CEDLE primarily involves the organization of its mega-, macro-, and microstructure.

The megastructure in CEDLE consists of an introductory section, which presents eight chapters: the preface, introduction, the rules for the transliteration of Hebrew and Aramaic used in this dictionary, the rules for the transliteration of Arabic used in this dictionary, a list of abbreviations of frequently referred books and journals, a list of other literature consulted, general abbreviations and their explanations, and a list of symbols used in the dictionary.

In the corpus megastructure, *the macrostructure of CEDLE* is organized into two volumes, where its total register comprises **46,119 words**, among which are *full-fledged parts of speech:* nouns (17,351), adjectives (12,640), numerals (44), pronouns (60), verbs (12,063), adverbs (2,155); as well as *functional (incomplete) parts of speech:* prepositions (224), conjunctions (174), particles (113). The register also includes: 1) interjections (95); 2) prefixes (239); 3) suffixes and suffixoids (639); 4) personal and mythological names (592).

Depending on the etymological nature of the material covered in CEDLE's dictionary entries, their register units were classified into corresponding thematic dictionary groups. In CEDLE, these are 1) words that have an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (hybrid words, native words, words borrowed into English from any other language); 2) words that do not have an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (hybrid words, native words, words borrowed into English from any other language).

The microstructure of CEDLE directly organizes information in two zones of dictionary entries: the zone of headword and the zone of etymology. Regardless of the character of the headword in CEDLE, the construction of dictionary entries for words that have an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (hybrid words, native words, words borrowed into English from any other language), as well as words that do not have an etymological relationship with another native/borrowed word (hybrid words, native words, words borrowed into English from any other language) in this source has a uniform structure, i. e., a single variant and is built from the following parts: a) headword; b) semanticization of the headword; semantic development of the headword in a synchronic slice; c) grammatical and/or stylistic information (special notes/dictionary remarks); d) illustrations; e) etymological character of the headword; f) historical reference about the headword; g) genetically related and/or etymologically connected counterparts of the Indo-European language family; h) semantic development of the headword in a diachronic slice; i) etymon of the headword; j) Indo-European root or joint base; k) derivatives of the headword; l) bibliog-

raphy of the most critical literature on the etymology of the respective word, if it was not already presented in the previous part of the article.

The comparative-typological characterization of the construction of CEDLE's dictionary entries for each thematic group allows us to state that their material is organized with adherence to <u>lexicographic</u>, <u>linguistic</u>, and <u>linguocognitive-synergetic principles</u>, where alongside cases of fundamentally identical presentation of information, there are still more discrepancies.

<u>Lexicographic principles</u> are observed in the inheritance (sequence) of lexicographic works, or their traditionality, as well as in the principles of efficiency and completeness, the degree of which is observed in two zones of dictionary entries: the zoze of headword and the zone of etymology. This is particularly evident in the form of material presentation in CEDLE, which includes special notes/dictionary remarks, comments/clarifications, illustrative material, formulas, signs/symbols, numbers, and abbreviations.

Although the derivatives of headwords in CEDLE's dictionary entries are recorded in the zone of etymology, they are all primarily organized according to the alphabetical principle.

Traditional principles of pragmatism and the theoretical and practical aspects of etymological dictionaries, which coincide with the principle of relativity and orientation towards the recipient, are characteristic of the zone of etymology. Here, the etymological character of the headword, the chronological development of the headword, and purely etymological information are presented.

Purely linguistic principles primarily concern the regularity of the systemic-structural organization in the construction of dictionary entries in CEDLE, where non-linear, i.e., paradigmatic relationships, are observed at the level of systemic organization between 1) the left, or register, part of the dictionary entry – the zone of headword, at the center of which is the register unit functioning as the representative of the word's form (expression plan), and 2) the right, or interpretive, part of the dictionary entry – the zone of etymology, corresponding to its etymological characteristic (content plan).

The structural organization of dictionary entries in CEDLE has the following structural elements (by the nature of the zone of headword: 1) headword; 2) semantic development of the headword: semanticization of the headword ("nominal" or "real" interpretations/definitions), change of meaning in a synchronic slice; 3) bibliography of the most important literature on etymology (list of lexicographic sources); 4) form of material presentation: system of special notes/dictionary remarks, comments/clarifications, illustrative material; by the nature of the zone of etymology: 1) headword; 2) etymological character of the headword; 3) history of the headword; 4) chronological development of the headword; 5) purely etymological information: experience in reconstructing the headword, genetically related and/or etymologically connected counterparts of

other Indo-European language family, Indo-European root or joint base of the headword; 6) semantic development of the headword (change of meaning in a diachronic slice); 7) bibliography of the most important literature on etymology: list of used sources (reference books, journals, textbooks, manuals), list of lexicographic sources; 8) form of material organization (within a family, group); 9) form of material presentation: system of special notes/dictionary remarks, comments/clarifications, illustrative material).

The main factor in constructing dictionary entries in CEDEL is found in the field organization of two zones of CEDEL dictionary entries: the zone of headword and the zone of etymology, where the core (headword) and the near, far, and extreme peripheral zones are determined. It has been established that common to all CEDEL dictionary entries is their core—**the headword.** However, differences are observed in the near, far, and extreme peripheral zones, which vary depending on the nature of the information presented in the dictionary entries.

The historical reference (principle of historicism) is also fundamental in constructing the zone of etymology. This principle is observed in dictionary entries of words that are/are not in etymological connection with another native/borrowed word, as presented in CEDEL.

The principle of periodization in CEDEL is found only in the zone of etymology, where the etymological character of headwords is presented, as well as in purely etymological information, where genetically related and/or etymologically connected counterparts of other Indo-European languages are presented.

Regarding cognitive principles, in addition to the traditional principles of explanatoriness and expansionism, which are vital in lexicographic sources and etymological ones in particular, since the scientific-evidence base is an essential objective scientific-explanatory tool for interpreting information both in the zone of headword and in the zone of etymology. The involvement of data from other sciences—ethnographic and historical in both dictionaries and medical in CEDEL dictionary entries—strengthens the reliability and likelihood of the presented word origin hypotheses. However, the principal factor in constructing dictionary entries is the principle of fractality. The essence of this principle is revealed in such lexicographic practice of constructing dictionary entries; after that analysis, it was established that they are built according to a fractal model, resembling a circle with two inner circles (like a button with two holes)—two bifurcation points (the headword field and the etymology field), where the "choice" of further development path of the headword or "selection" of constructing stages of the iterative process occurs, i. e., involving a respective number of parameter sets (categories and subcategories).

Each of these parameters is non-linear and self-similar to the whole model of the dictionary entry, which has the same form as one or several of its categories or subcategories.

A dictionary entry as a fractal has a hierarchical organization, manifesting in the subordination of individual fractal elements (dictionary entries) to the whole fractal (dictionary entry) (subcategories to categories, categories to fields, fields to dictionary entries, a dictionary entry to the dictionary), a complex form that has different levels of organization at different scales, i.e., when focusing on a particular element. Examining the dictionary entry on a larger scale, one can see (discover) new details of the headword. Increasing the fractal's scale, focusing on the two bifurcation points or their iterations, revealed the irregularity of fractals (dictionary entries) in CEDEL, meaning that fractal structures of dictionary entries at an increased scale do not become simpler but, conversely, maintain equally complex content at all levels.

In dictionary entries of words that are in etymological connection with another native/borrowed word, as presented in CEDEL, cross-links and blurriness of boundaries are observed: one dictionary entry takes on a different appearance through its relation to another dictionary entry, the content of which is linked to other entries ad infinitum, demonstrating the multilayeredness of the fractal (dictionary entry).

For those entries where the etymons of their headwords are not yet established, i.e., unreconstructed forms (archetypes, proto-forms), are characterized by dynamism, the capacity for development, as at each current step of the iterative process, new confirmations of etymological hypotheses are required, which are likely to be supplemented over time.

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Appendix

General Taxonomy of Lexicographic Sources

No.	Criteria of Classification Type of Lexicographic Source	Type, Subtype, Class, Kind, Variety of Lexicographic Source	Classification
1.	**Object of Dictionary Description**	1. ENCYCLOPEDIC	1. General / universal 2. Special (industry, narrow industry, multi-industry) 3. 3. Regional
2.	**Method of Vocabulary Organization**	2. LINGUISTIC	1. Alphabetical 2. Nest 3. Alphabetical-nest 4. Ideographic 5. Inversion 6. Frequent
3.	**Quantitative Composition of the Lexicographic Data and the Volume of Lexicographic Information**		1. Large – comprehensive/ unabridged (single-/ two-/multi-volume) 2. Medium – desk-size dictionaries/semi-abridged 3. Small/short (pocket) – abridged/pocket size dictionaries
4.	**Method of Presenting the Lexical Meaning of a Word**		**MONOLINGUAL** – explanatory **BI- / MULTILINGUAL** – translational
5.	**Functions, Purposes, Designation, and Parameters of the Description of the Lexicographic Unit**	2.1. SYSTEMIC: – explanatory sources	**LEXICAL:** 1. Dictionaries of the literary language (normative dictionaries)

(Continued)

No.	Criteria of Classification Type of Lexicographic Source	Type, Subtype, Class, Kind, Variety of Lexicographic Source	Classification
			2. Historical and etymological dictionaries 3. Folk-colloquial dictionaries 4. Dialect (regional) dictionaries
		– actual system sources	1. Semonymous dictionaries: dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, paronyms, lexical difficulties, homonyms, lexical word variants 2. Word-forming dictionaries 3. Field dictionaries: – ideographic dictionaries (thesauruses): conceptual / semantic, thematic, associative dictionaries / dictionaries of associative norms; – dictionaries that combine words according to their functional characteristics: dictionaries of active vocabulary (active dictionaries); dictionaries of passive vocabulary (dictionaries of argonisms); dictionaries of new words (neologisms); functional dictionaries; – dictionaries of foreign words; – non-normative dictionaries: dictionaries of colloquial vocabulary, slang, jargon, slang; – idiolect dictionaries: idiostylistic, the languages of writers, individual stories, poetic, stylistic techniques, dictionaries of adult personality, children's language;

(Continued)

No.	Criteria of Classification Type of Lexicographic Source	Type, Subtype, Class, Kind, Variety of Lexicographic Source	Classification
			– onomasticons: anthro-ponymic, toponymic; – otonomasticons: 1. Terminological 2. Special (industry, narrow industry, multi-industry) 3. Classifiers 4. Terminological thesauri 5. Terminological mini-mums
		– professional sources	**NON-LEXICAL:** 1. Grammatical diction-aries 2. Discursive dictionaries 3. Syntactic dictionaries 4. Dictionaries of means of expression: phraseo-logical, dictionaries of comparisons, peri-phrasis, catchwords and expressions, paremias (proverbs and sayings)
		REFERENCES: – scientific refer-ence sources	1. Reverse dictionaries (in-versions) 2. Frequency dictionaries 3. Etymological diction-aries 4. Complex dictionaries
		– practical reference (normalizing) sources	1. Dictionaries of lexical and grammatical diffi-culties (correctness) 2. Dictionaries of abbrevia-tions 3. Orthological (ortho-epic and orthographic) dic-tionaries 4. Complex dictionaries
		3. ENCYCLOPEDIC-LINGUISTIC / ENCYCLOPEDIC-PHILOLOGICAL	Examples of encyclopedic-linguistic / encyclopedic-philological sources